

THE MONTHLY EPITOME,

For FEBRUARY 1801.

XII. *An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa, in the Years 1797 and 1798: including cursory Observations on the Geology and Geography of the southern Part of that Continent; the Natural History of such Objects as occurred in the animal, vegetable, and mineral Kingdoms; and Sketches of the physical and moral Characters of the various Tribes of Inhabitants surrounding the Settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. To which is annexed, a Description of the present State, Population, and Produce of that extensive Colony; with a Map constructed entirely from actual Observations made in the Course of the Travels. By JOHN BARROW, late Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and Auditor-general of public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope. 4to. pp. 419. 1l. 10s. Cadell and Davies.*

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EXTRACTS.

THE COLONY OF THE CAPE.

“BY the capture of the Cape of Good Hope and of Ceylon, the British language is now heard at the southern extremities of the four great continents or quarters of the globe. Three of these have submitted to the power of its arms; and the spirit of commerce

and adventurous industry has directed the attention of its enterprising subjects to the fourth, on the small island of Staaten, at the extreme point of South America, where a kind of settlement has been formed for carrying on the southern whale-fishery. Of these extreme points, the Cape of Good Hope cannot be considered as the least important, either with regard to its geographical situation, as favourable for carrying on a speedy intercourse with every part of the civilized world; or to its intrinsic value, as capable of supplying many articles of general consumption to the mother-country; or as a port solely for the numerous and valuable fleets of the East India Company to refresh at; to assemble in time of war for convoy; to re-establish the health of their sickly troops, worn down by the debilitating effects of exposure to a warm climate; and to season, in the mild and moderate temperatures of Southern Africa, such of those from Europe as may be destined for service in the warmer climate of their Indian settlements.

“In the early voyages undertaken by the British merchants trading to the East Indies, the Cape was always made the general rendezvous and place of refreshment; and it was then considered of such importance, that a formal possession was taken of it by two commanders of the Company's ships in the year 1620, in the name of King James of Great Britain, a period of thirty years antecedent to the establishment of the colony by the United Provinces.” *P. i.*

“No further notice seems to have been taken by the British government of this possession at that time; nor does it appear that any kind of interference or contravention was made by it when the Dutch East India Company sent out Van Reibeck, in order to form a settlement there in the year 1650. Till this period the English, the Portuguese, and the Dutch had indiscriminately refreshed their crews at the Cape. The Portuguese, who were the first discoverers of the southern extremity of the continent of Africa, at least in modern times, established no settlement nearer to it than the banks of Rio Infante, now the Great Fish River, and boundary of the colony to the eastward, which is nearly 600 miles from the Cape of Good Hope; and this

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this they soon abandoned for want of shelter for their shipping, which they afterwards found, farther to the eastward, in the bay of De la Goa, still in their possession. At length, however, from the very favourable representations of Van Reibeck, then a surgeon of one of the Dutch ships, the East India Company came to a resolution to colonize the Cape; and since the first establishment to the present war, a period of near 180 years, it continued in their hands. The progress of the population and the extent of territory have been tolerably rapid. The former, like some of the provinces of North America, has nearly doubled itself in every twenty years. It was first settled in 1650 by a hundred male persons, to whom were shortly afterwards sent out, from the houses of industry in Holland, about an equal number of females; and the present population exceeds 20,000 whites: many of these, however, have since been imported from Europe.

"The difficulties that for a time impeded the extension of the settlement, were principally occasioned by the number of wild beasts of various kinds that swarmed in every part of the country. In the private journal of the founder of the colony it is noticed, that lions and leopards, wolves and hyenas, committed nightly depredations, for some time after the first establishment, under the walls of the fort. The opposition of the native Hottentots seems to have given them little interruption. They soon discovered the predominant passion of this weak and peaceable people for spirituous liquors, and that a bottle of brandy was a passport through every horde. With this and tobacco, iron, and a few paltry trinkets, they purchased a part of the country and of their stock of cattle, and then took the rest by force. A cask of brandy was the price of a whole district; and nine inches in length of an iron hoop the purchase of a fat ox. Deprived, by their passion for intoxicating liquors and baubles, of the only means of existence, the numbers of the natives began rapidly to decline; and the encroachments of the settlers were in proportion to the diminution of the obstacles. Finding it unnecessary to limit the extent of their possessions, the policy of the government kept pace with the propen-

sity of its subjects to spread themselves wide over the country. It foresaw that a spirit of industry, if encouraged in a mild and temperate climate, and on a fertile soil, might one day produce a society impatient of the shackles imposed on it by the parent state. It knew, that to supply to its subjects the wants of life without the toil of labour or the anxiety of care; to keep them in ignorance, and to prevent a ready intercourse with each other, were the most likely means to counteract such a spirit. It granted lands, therefore, on yearly leases, at the small fixed rent of twenty-four rixdollars (not five pounds sterling), in any part of the country. A law was also passed, that the nearest distance from house to house was to be three miles, so that each farm consisted of more than 5000 acres of land, and consequently was rented at the rate of something less than a farthing an acre. From a scarcity of water, it frequently happened that many farms were at twice that distance from each other. No land was granted in property except in the vicinity of the Cape. As the Dutch advanced, the natives retired; and those that remained with their herds among the new settlers, were soon reduced to the necessity of becoming their servants.

"No permanent limits to the colony were ever fixed under the Dutch government. The pastoral life that the peasantry of the remote districts at all times adopted, required a great extent of country to feed their numerous herds; and the imbecility and easy temper of the adjacent tribes of natives favoured their avaricious views; and the government was either unwilling, or thought itself unable, to restrain them. Having no kind of chart nor survey, except of such districts as were contiguous to the Cape, it possessed a very limited and imperfect knowledge of the geography of the remoter parts, collected chiefly from the reports of the peasantry, fallacious often, through ignorance or design, or of those who had made excursions for their profit or pleasure, or from expeditions sent out by order, and at the expense of government; and the object of these, it would appear, was with the view rather of carrying on a lucrative trade with the bordering tribes of natives, than to supply useful information

tion respecting the colony. Attended with the parade of a military guard, surgeons, land-surveyors, burghers with waggons, oxen, horses, and Hottentots without number, not one of them has furnished a single sketch even towards assisting the knowledge of the geography of the country. The only persons who appear to have travelled with no other view than that of acquiring useful information, were the Governor Van Plettenberg, and the late Colonel Gordon. These two gentlemen fixed, upon the spot, the boundaries of the colony, as they now stand, to the eastward. To complete the line of demarcation, through the heart of the country to the western shore, was one of the objects of the several journeys that supplied the materials of the following pages. The chart that accompanies them was undertaken and executed by the order of the Earl of Macartney, in the years 1797 and 1798, when these journeys were made. It was constructed entirely from actual observations of latitude and of bearings, estimation of distances, and frequent angular intersections of remarkable points and objects.

"From this chart it appears that the extent and dimensions of the territory composing the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

Length from west to east.	Miles.
Cape Point to Kaffer Land, - -	580
River Koussie to Zuurberg, - -	520
Breadth from south to north.	
River Koussie to Cape Point, -	315
Nieuwveldt Mountains to Plettenberg's Bay, - - - - -	160
Mouth of the Tush River to Plettenberg's Baaken, - - - -	225

which gives a parallelogram whose mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233, English miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 square miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants, so that each individual might possess eight and a half square miles of ground. A very great portion, however, of this territory may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with crystallized sand, condemn-

ed to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants; and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with four grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony of the Cape." *P. 5.*

PERNICIOUS EFFECTS OF SLAVERY.

"THERE is, perhaps, no part of the world, out of Europe, where the introduction of slavery was less necessary than at the Cape of Good Hope. Nor would it ever have found its way into this angle of Africa, had the same spirit of Batavian industry, which raised a wealthy and populous republic out of the sea, impressed the minds of those who first formed the settlement. A temperate climate, a fertile soil, a mild and peaceable race of natives, were advantages that few infant colonies have possessed; and, as they still exist, may one day yet be turned to account. To encourage the native Hottentots in useful labour, by giving them an interest in the produce of that labour; to make them experience the comforts of civilized life, and to feel they have a place and a value in society, which the miserable policy of the Dutch government denied to them, would be the sure means of diminishing, and, in time, of entirely removing the necessity of slavery. Few negroes, in fact, have been imported since the capture, and those few by accident, or by special commission: and as the increased demand for colonial produce has required a proportional increase of labour, they now bear most extravagant prices. From one hundred to four hundred pounds sterling is daily paid for a slave in Cape Town: yet it is not unusual to find from twenty to thirty in one house. Some of these, indeed, are artificers, and are hired out at certain rates for the day, week, or month. The most active and docile, but the most dangerous slaves are the Malays. They are faithful, honest, and industrious; but so impatient of injury, and so capricious, that the slightest provocation will sometimes drive them into fits of frenzy, during the continuance of which it would be unsafe to come within their reach. The revengeful spirit of a Malay was strongly marked by

by an occurrence which happened a short time ago. Conceiving that he not only had served his master sufficiently long, and with great fidelity, but had also paid him several sums of money, he was tempted to demand his liberty, and met with a refusal. The following morning the Malay murdered his fellow-slave. On being taken and brought up for examination before a commission of the Court of Justice, he acknowledged that the boy he had murdered was his friend; but he had considered that the most effectual way to be revenged of his master was, not by taking away his life, but by robbing him of the value of a thousand rixdollars, by the loss of the boy, and another thousand by bringing himself, in so doing, to the gallows, the recollection of which would prey upon his avaricious mind for the remainder of his life.

"The effects that a state of slavery invariably produces on the minds and habits of a people born and educated in the midst of it, are not less felt at the Cape than in the warmer climates. Among the upper ranks it is the custom for every child to have its slave, whose sole employment is to humour its caprices, and to drag it about from place to place, lest it should too soon discover for what purposes nature had bestowed on it legs and arms. Even the lower class of people object to their children going out as servants, or being bound as apprentices to learn the useful trades, which, in their contracted ideas, would be considered as condemning them to perform the work of slaves." P. 45.

SOCIETY AND MANNERS.

"THAT portion of the day, not employed in the concerns of trade, is usually devoted to the gratification of the sensual appetites. Few have any taste for reading, and none for the cultivation of the fine arts. They have no kind of public amusements except occasional balls; nor is there much social intercourse but by family parties, which usually consist of card-playing or dancing. Money-matters and merchandise engross their whole conversation. Yet none are opulent, though many in easy circumstances. There are no beggars in the whole colony; and but a few who are the objects of

public charity. The subsistence for these is derived from the interest of a fund established out of the church superfluities, from alms, donations, and collections made after divine service, and not from any tax laid upon the public. Except, indeed, a few colonial assessments for the repairs of the streets and public works, the inhabitants of the Cape have little drawback on their profits or the produce of their labour. The luxury of a carriage and horses, which in England is attended with an enormous expense, is kept up here for a trifle after the first cost. Those in the town that are used only for short excursions, or for taking the air, are open, and calculated for four or six persons. For making journeys they have a kind of light waggon covered with sail-cloth, and sufficiently large to hold a whole family with clothes and provisions for several days. The coachman is generally one of those people known in the colony by the name of *bastards*, being a mixed breed between a Hottentot woman and a European man, or a Hottentot woman and a slave. They make most excellent drivers, and think nothing of turning short corners, or of galloping through narrow avenues, with eight in hand. The ladies seldom take the exercise of riding on horseback, that exercise being considered as too fatiguing. They generally confine themselves to the house during the day, and walk the Mall in the public garden in the cool of the evening." P. 48.

A SILVER MINE PRETENDED TO BE FOUND.

"THE plain to the eastward, at a dozen miles beyond Stickland, is terminated by two mountains, between which the road leads into a valley better cultivated and more thickly inhabited than any part between it and the Cape. Simonsberg, on the right, is among the highest of the mountains that are seen from the Cape. Its forked Parnassian summit is frequently, in winter, covered with snow, and in the south-east winds of summer is generally buried in the clouds. It also has its Helicon trickling down its sides, as yet a virgin spring untasted by the Muses. It held out more charms, it seems, for Plutus, than for Apollo. A man in the time of the governor, whose name

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the mountain perpetuates, intent on making his fortune by imposing on the credulity and ignorance of the Company's servants, melted down a quantity of Spanish dollars, and presented the mass to the governor, as a specimen of silver from a rich mine that he had discovered in this mountain. Enraptured at the proof of so important a discovery, a resolution was passed by the governor in council, that a sum of money should be advanced to the man, to enable him to prosecute his discovery, and work the mine, of which he was to have the sole direction; and in the mean time, to convince the public of the rising wealth of the colony, the mass of silver was ordered to be manufactured into a chain, to which the keys of the castle gates should be suspended. The chain was made, and still remains in the same service for which it was originally intended, as a memorial of the credulity of the governor and the council." P. 59.

THE DUTCH COLONISTS—THEIR
MODE OF LIFE, &c.

"AT the head of this little valley (Hex-river valley) we were to take leave of every human habitation for at least sixteen days, the time required to cross over the Great Karroo, or Arid Desert, that lay between us and the distant district of Graaff Reynet. It therefore became necessary to supply ourselves with a stock of provisions, as nothing whatsoever is to be had on the desert, except now and then an antelope. To those travellers who are furnished with a good waggon and a tent, the want of habitations is no great loss; for few of them, behind the first range of mountains, have any sort of convenience, comfort, or even cleanliness. Among the planters of Africa it is true there are some who live in a decent manner, particularly the cultivators of the grape. Many of these are descendants of the French families who, a little more than a century ago, found an asylum at the Cape of Good Hope from the religious persecutions that drove them from their own country. But a true Dutch peasant, or boor, as he styles himself, has not the smallest idea of what an English farmer means by the word comfort. Placed in a country where not only the necessaries, but almost every luxury of life might

by industry be procured, he has the enjoyment of none of them. Though he has cattle in abundance, he makes very little use of milk or of butter. In the midst of a soil and climate most favourable for the cultivation of the vine, he drinks no wine. He makes use of few or no vegetables nor roots. Three times a-day his table is loaded with masses of mutton, swimming in the grease of the sheep's tail. His house is either open to the roof, or covered only with rough poles and turf, affording a favourable shelter for scorpions and spiders; and the earthy floors are covered with dust and dirt, and swarm with insects, particularly with a species of the *termites*, which, though not so destructive as some others of this genus, is nevertheless a very troublesome and disagreeable animal. His apartments, if he happens to have more than one, which is not always the case among the grazing farmers, are nearly destitute of furniture. A great chest that contains all his moveables, and two smaller ones that are fitted to his waggon, are the most striking articles. The bottoms of his chairs consist of thongs cut from a bullock's hide. The windows are without glass; or if there should happen to be any remains of this article, it is so patched and daubed as nearly to exclude the light it was intended to admit. The boor notwithstanding has his enjoyments: he is absolute master of a domain of several miles in extent; and he lords it over a few miserable slaves or Hottentots without controul. His pipe scarcely ever quits his mouth, from the moment he rises till he retires to rest, except to give him time to swallow his *sopie*, or a glass of strong ardent spirit, to eat his meals, and to take his nap after dinner. Unwilling to work, and unable to think; with a mind disengaged from every sort of care and reflection, indulging to excess in the gratification of every sensual appetite, the African peasant grows to an unwieldy size, and is carried off the stage by the first inflammatory disease that attacks him.

"How different is the lot of the labouring poor in England, who for six days in the week are doomed to toil for twelve hours in every day, in order to gain a morsel of bread for their family, and the luxury of a little animal food for the seventh day!

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"The cultivators of the ground, who inhabit the nearer districts to the town, though something better than the breeders of cattle, live but in a very uncomfortable manner in the midst of profusion. They have little or no society with each other, and every one seems to live solely for himself. Though removed from each other to the distance of several miles, and enjoying the benefit of many thousand acres of land, under the rate of a farthing an acre, it is yet a singular fact, that scarcely any two neighbours are found to be on good terms with each other, but are embroiled perpetually in quarrels and disputes about the extent of their farms, or the privilege of a spring or a water-course. One great cause of their endless disputes is the absurd manner of estimating distance by time. The quantity of land in a government farm, according to the established custom of the colony, must be one hour's walk across it. If one farmer is supposed to have put down his *baaken*, or stake, or land-mark, a little too near to that of his neighbour, the *Feldwagtmeeſter*, or peace officer of the division, is called in, by the latter, to pace the distance, for which he gets three dollars. If the *Feldwagtmeeſter* should happen to regulate his pace to the satisfaction of both parties, the affair is settled; but as this is not always the case, the next step is for the discontented party to apply for a commission, consisting of the Landroſt, two members of the council, the secretary of the district, and a messenger. These gentlemen share fifteen dollars a-day as long as they are out upon the commission to determine how far a man ought to walk in an hour.

"The dangerous and difficult roads in every part of the colony, but particularly the kloofs or passes of the mountains, and the still more perilous fords of the rivers, show how very little sense is entertained by the peasantry of public benefits or public conveniences. Each gets over a difficulty as well as he can, and no more is thought about it till it again occurs. An instance appeared of this in crossing the Breede river opposite to Brandt Valley, which is done by means of a small flat-bottomed tub, about six feet by three. In this machine foot passengers haul themselves over by a rope fixed to two posts, one on each side of

the river. When a horse is to cross, the saddle is taken off, the rider gets into the tub, and drags the animal after him. But when a waggon is to be transported, it must first be unladen, and the baggage carried over in the vessel: the carriage is then made fast by one end to this floating machine, and the other is buoyed up by a cask, and in this manner it is dragged over. Thus is half a day consumed in passing a small river of thirty or forty yards at the most in width, when a few planks, properly put together, would enable them to carry over any sort of carriage, cattle, or horses, with safety and convenience in five minutes.

"The women of the African peasantry pass a life of the most listless inactivity. The mistress of the family, with her coffee-pot constantly boiling before her on a small table, seems fixed to her chair like a piece of furniture. This good lady, born in the wilds of Africa, and educated among slaves and Hottentots, has little idea of what, in a state of society, constitutes female delicacy. She makes no scruple of having her legs and feet washed in warm water by a slave before strangers; an operation that is regularly performed every evening. If the motive of such a custom were that of cleanliness, the practice of it would deserve praise; but to see the tub with the same water passed round through all the branches of the family, according to seniority, is apt to create ideas of a very different nature. Most of them go constantly without stockings and shoes, even when the thermometer is down to the freezing point. They generally, however, make use of small stoves to place the feet on. The young girls sit with their hands before them as listless as their mothers. Most of them, in the distant districts, can neither read nor write, so that they have no mental resources whatever. Luckily, perhaps, for them, the paucity of ideas prevents time from hanging heavy on their hands. The history of a day is that of their whole lives. They hear or speak of nothing but that such-a-one is going to the city, or to church, or to be married, or that the Bosjesmans have stolen the cattle of such-a-one, or the locusts eaten their corn. The young people have no meetings at fixed periods, as in most country-places, for mirth and recreation. No fairs, no dancing, no music,

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nor amusement of any sort. To the cold phlegmatic temper and inactive way of life may perhaps be owing the prolific tendency of all the African peasantry. Six or seven children in a family are considered as very few; from a dozen to twenty are not uncommon; and most of them marry very young, so that the population of the colony is rapidly increasing. Several, however, of the children die in their infancy, from swellings in the throat, and from eruptions of the same kind they are subject to in the Cape. Very few instances of longevity occur. The manner of life they lead is perhaps less favourable for a prolonged existence than the nature of the climate. The diseases of which they generally die in the country are bilious and putrid fevers and dropies.

"The men are in general much above the middle size, very tall and stout, but ill made, loosely put together, awkward, and inactive. Very few have those open ingenuous countenances that among the peasantry of many parts of Europe speak their simplicity and innocence. The descendants of French families are now so intermarried with those of the original settlers, that no distinction, except the names, remains. And it is a remarkable fact, that not a word of the French language is spoken or understood by any of the peasantry, though there be many still living whose parents were both of that nation. Neither is a French book of any kind to be seen in their houses. It would seem as if these persecuted refugees had studied to conceal from their children their unfortunate history and their country's disgraceful conduct.

"The means of education, it is true, must be very difficult to be had among a people so widely scattered over a vast extent of country, as the peasantry are in the colony of the Cape. Some have a person in the house whom they call the schoolmaster. This is generally a man who had served out his time in the ranks. His employment, in this new situation, is not only to instruct the children to read, to write, to sing psalms, and get by heart a few occasional prayers, but he must also make himself serviceable in other respects. At one place that we passed, the poor schoolmaster was driving the plough, whilst a Hottentot had the more honourable post of holding and

directing it. The children of those who either cannot obtain, or afford to employ such a person, can neither read nor write; and the whole of their education consists in learning to shoot well, to crack and use with dexterity an enormous large whip, and to drive a waggon drawn by bullocks.

"A book of any kind is rarely seen in any of the farmers' houses, except the Bible and *William Shuter's Gefangen*, or songs out of the Bible, done into verse by the Sternhold and Hopkins of Holland. They affect to be very religious, and carry at least the devotion of religion fully as far as the most zealous bigots. They never sit down to table without a long grace before meat pronounced with an audible voice by the youngest of the family; and every morning before daylight one of William Shuter's *Gefangen* is drawled out in full chorus by an assemblage of the whole family. In their attendance at church they are scrupulously exact, though the performance of this duty costs many of them a journey of several days. Those who live at the distance of a fortnight or three weeks from the nearest church generally go with their families once a year.

"Rude and uncultivated as are their minds, there is one virtue in which they eminently excel—hospitality to strangers. A countryman, a foreigner, a relation, a friend, are all equally welcome to whatsoever the house will afford. A Dutch farmer never passes a house on the road without alighting, except indeed his next neighbour's, with whom it is ten to one he is at variance. It is not enough to inquire after the health of the family in passing: even on the road, if two peasants should meet, they instantly dismount to shake hands, whether strangers or friends. When a traveller arrives at a habitation, he alights from his horse, enters the house, shakes hands with the men, kisses the women, and sits down without farther ceremony. When the table is served he takes his place among the family, without waiting for an invitation. This is never given, on the supposition that a traveller in a country so thinly inhabited must always have an appetite for something. Accordingly, "What will you 'make use of?' is generally the first question. If there be a bed in the house, it is given to the stranger; if none,

none, which is frequently the case among the graziers of the distant district of Graaff Reynet, he must take his chance for a form, or bench, or a heap of sheep-skins, among the rest of the family. In the morning, after a solid breakfast, he takes his *sopie*, or glass of brandy, orders his slave or Hottentot to saddle the horses, shakes hands with the men, and kisses the women: he wishes them health, and they wish him a good journey. In this manner a traveller might pass through the whole country.

"If the economy of the African farmer's house be ill managed, that of his land is equally bad. The graziers, indeed, in many places, are not at the trouble of sowing any grain, but exchange with others their cattle for as much as may be necessary for the family consumption. But even those who have corn-farms near the Cape seem to have no kind of management. They turn over a piece of ground with a huge misshapen plough, that requires eight or ten horses, or a dozen oxen, to drag it along: the seed is sown in the broad-cast way, at the rate of about a bushel and a half to an acre; a rude harrow is just passed over it, and they reap from ten to fifteen for one. No manure comes upon the ground except a sprinkling for barley. In low situations near rivulets, where the water can be brought upon the ground, they reap from thirty to forty for one. Water in fact is every thing in Southern Africa. Not like the Chinese, whose great art of agriculture consists in suiting the nature and habit of the plant to that of the soil, which he also artificially prepares, the Dutch peasant at the Cape is satisfied if he can command only a supply of water. He bestows no kind of labour on the ground but that of throwing in the seed: the rest is left to chance and the effects of an excellent climate. The time of seeding is in the months of May and June; and of harvest, from November to January. The grain is trodden out by horses on circular floors in the open air; and the straw is left to rot or to be scattered about by the winds." P. 76.

(To be continued.)

XIII. *A Journey from London to the Isle of Wight.* By THOMAS PENNANT. Vol. V.—No. XLIV.

PENNANT, Esq. 2 vols. 4to. pp. 412. 3l. 3s. E. Harding, West and Hughes.

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PREFACE TO VOL. I.

"THE merits of the late learned and respectable Mr. Pennant, as an author, are too well known to require encomium: his talents as a naturalist stand unrivalled; and, as a tourist, he was the first who enlivened the dryness of topographical research with historical and biographical anecdote, and illustrated description with the decorations of the pencil. Several tours, thus recommended, were published during his lifetime, and have gone through numerous editions; others, which he never printed, are enumerated in his literary life; amongst these stands conspicuous the Tour from London to Dover, and from Dover to the Land's End.

"In regard to the Tour from London to Dover, which forms part of his great work on the Outlines of the Globe, he thus expresses himself: 'Vol. ii. describes a Tour, commencing at the Temple Stairs, comprehending my passage down the Thames, as low as Dartford Creek, and from thence to Dover.'

"The Tour from Dover, which forms another part of his Outlines of the Globe, he thus describes in page 31: 'Ever since the year 1777, I had quite lost my spirit of rambling.

Another happy nuptial connexion suppressed every desire to leave my fireside; but, in the spring of this year, I was induced once more to renew my journeys. My son had returned from his last tour to the continent, so much to my satisfaction, that I was determined to give him every advantage that might qualify him for a second, which he was on the point of taking over the kingdoms of France and Spain. I wished him to make a comparison of the naval strength and commercial advantages and disadvantages of our island, with those of her two powerful rivals: I attended him down the Thames, visited all our docks, and, by land (from Dartford), followed the whole coast to the very Land's End. On his return from his second tour I had great reason to boast that this excursion was not thrown away: as to myself, it was a painful one; long absence from my family was so new to me, that I may sincerely say, it cast an anxiety over the whole journey.

The interest which every reader must feel in the description and delineation of these portions of our isle, will be greatly enhanced by the consideration that this is among the posthumous remains of that correct observer, and experienced investigator, whose glance penetrated through all the recesses of nature—whose taste in embellishment and accuracy in description, subjected to the eye, and indelibly impressed on the mind of his reader, those images which were so happily conceived, and so interestingly blended in his own. This work is among the last treasures drawn from that mine of learning and science which the hand of Providence has closed for ever—that mine by which our national treasures have been copiously augmented, and from which some of the most estimable ornaments of British literature have been derived.

Considering these tours as part of a grand unfinished project, they present a model to that kindred genius who shall venture to perfect what Pennant left incomplete. Considered as a fragment of an illustrious author, they will not want value in the eyes of his countrymen, as they display that grand portion of the British territory where force, wealth, and that commerce from which both are derived, have

fixed their chief, and, it is hoped, immoveable residence.

These tours, now presented to the public, were kindly communicated by David Pennant, Esq. the son of the author. The editor has spared neither pains nor expense to render this work in all respects equal to Mr. Pennant's former publications: it is embellished with forty-nine plates, consisting of views of the most important places mentioned in the tour, and portraits of illustrious persons.

It is necessary to apprise the reader, that the manuscript has been scrupulously adhered to, and that two or three breaks, left by Mr. Pennant, are not filled up. This conscientious adherence to literary veracity will require no apology; the editor despaired of embellishing, and would not risk figuring the work of so excellent a hand.

ADVERTISEMENT TO VOL. II.

ALTHOUGH the title of this tour, in the original, comprehends 'A Journey from London to the Land's End,' yet the editor is concerned to add, that the manuscript is complete no farther than the Isle of Wight: but as he intends to publish a continuation, in a third volume, for the purpose of completing Mr. Pennant's original plan, he is authorized to inform the public, that the undertaking will be assisted by all the information which can be derived from a gentleman who accompanied Mr. Pennant during the tour, who assisted in his researches, and was acquainted with his opinions and intentions."

EXTRACTS.

HENRY HOWARD EARL OF NORTHAMPTON.

THERE are, in Greenwich, two hospitals of private foundation. I shall only mention that called Norfolk, which stands on the river-side, a little to the north-east of the Royal Hospital. Notwithstanding it was founded by Henry Howard, Earl of Northampton, yet it bears the title of his brother Thomas, Duke of Norfolk. Northampton had the honour of founding two others, at Clun in Shropshire, and at Castle Rising in Norfolk. He seemed

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to rest entirely on a few good works, to expiate for a multitude of sins, to compound with Heaven for a life most enormously wicked: he was treacherous, dissembling, mean, and cruel. The Howards must not boast of their blood in this corrupted stream. He is mentioned as *subtiliter subdolanus*, and a cunning serpent; the grossest flatterer alive; externally a Protestant, internally a Roman Catholic; adapting his religion to his convenience. He enjoyed the highest honours of the times, yet could sink into a pandar, and promote the intrigue between the favourite Somerset and his own niece, wife to the injured Earl of Essex. To fill the measure of his iniquity, he persuaded the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, and, fortunately for himself, died before the detection of that nefarious transaction.

"He had the hardiness to prosecute, in the Star Chamber, certain persons, who had been indiscreet enough to say some severe truths of him. Sentence was about to be passed on them, when the honest Abbot, Archbishop of Canterbury, arose, and bluntly told the court, that there were sufficient grounds for the reports, and, pulling out a letter of the Earl's to Cardinal Bellarmine, read from his own confession, 'That his conformity to the Protestant religion was no more than a compliment to the King, but his heart stood firm with the Papists; and that he would be ready to further them in any attempt.' His Lordship was so struck with this, that he went home, made his will, confessed himself a Roman Catholic, and died soon after. As he was warden of the Cinque Ports, and governor of Dover Castle, he was buried there; and a superb monument, made by Stone, at the expense of 500*l.* erected over him in the chapel of the Castle: his figure is represented kneeling on a sarcophagus, in the robes of the garter, and with his hands clasped. His heirs seemed to have inherited his love of flattery; for, at each corner of the tomb, they have placed a figure of a cardinal virtue. His death happened on June 15th, 1614. In 1696, when the chapel grew ruinous, his body and tomb were removed into the chapel of the hospital." *Vol. i. p. 20.*

PURFLEET—MAGAZINES OF GUN POWDER.

"FROM Erith, we crossed the river obliquely to Purfleet. Its great chalk hill rose before us, in this flat country, like an Alp. A considerable quantity is burnt into lime, for sale. We landed at the tremendous national magazines of gunpowder, erected here about the year 1762. Before that time, they were at Greenwich, which was thought to be too near our capital. They consist of five large parallel buildings, each above a hundred and sixty feet long, and fifty-two wide, five feet thick, arched beneath the slated roof; the arch is three feet in thickness, and the ridge of the roof covered with a coping of lead twenty-two inches broad. The building was reserved for the reception of the barrels of powder brought out of the magazines, in order to be tried in the proof room, to which there is a passage with a railed floor, covered on the bottom with water; so that, should any grain drop, no accident could set them on fire. At present this building is disused, all the experiments being made in the open air, and in the muckety, or artillery, to the use of which it is destined. All these buildings are surrounded, at a distance, with a lofty wall. In the two outmost is kept the powder, in small barrels, piled within wooden frames, from the bottom to the roof; and between the frames is a platform of planks, that the walkers may go in without fear of striking against any substance capable of emitting a spark. As a farther security, those who enter this dreadful place are furnished with goloshoes and a carter's frock. Nothing of iron is admitted, for fear of a fatal collision. The doors are of copper, the wheels of the barrels are of brass. The four buildings usually contain thirty thousand barrels of a hundred pounds weight: should an explosion take place, London, only fifteen miles distant, in a direct line, would probably suffer in a high degree. The dread of such an accident by lightning, struck the Board of Ordnance so forcibly, that, in 1772, it consulted the Royal Society on the most effectual method of preventing it. A committee from the Society was appointed, who determined on fixing conductors: such were set up with unusual precaution. These were on the principle

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principle advised by Dr. Benjamin Franklin: the very same philosopher, who, living under the protection of our mild government, was secretly playing the incendiary, and too successfully inflaming the minds of our fellow-subjects in America, till the great explosion happened, which for ever disunited us from our once happy colonists. On May 15th, 1777, the inefficacy of his pointed conductors was evinced. Lightning struck off several pieces of stone and brick from the coping of the Board House, which stands at a small distance from the magazines; neither the conductor on this house, or any of the others, acted; but Providence directed the stroke to that alone: the mischief was very trifling. Mr. B. Wilson had very ably dissented against the method proposed by Dr. Franklin; but the evil genius of the wily philosopher stood victorious; and our capital narrowly escaped subversion*. At present, these important magazines are made as safe as human wisdom can contrive. The house in question is a handsome plain building, and is called the Board House, from the use made occasionally of it by the Board of Ordnance. It commands a fine view up and down the river, and the rich gentle range of hills in the county of Kent." *Fol. i. p. 42.*

DUTCH INVASION, 1667—DE RUYTER
AND ALBEMARLE.

"CHARLES II. who was fond of the navy, made great additions to the yard (Chatham), and here laid up our principal ships. In June 1667, we suffered here an insult of the most mortifying nature. On the 7th of that month, De Ruyter appeared suddenly at the mouth of the Thames, with seventy sail of ships. He detached his Vice-admiral Van Ghent with seventeen of the lighter ships and eight fire-ships, attacked and took the fort at Sheerness, and then made dispositions to proceed up the river. Government took the alarm, and instantly sent the Duke of Albemarle to Chatham, who, with his usual courage and activity, assembled a large body of troops, and took every measure which the shortness

of time would admit to ward off the tremendous blow. He was attended by Sir Edward Spragge with a train of gallant officers, and a multitude of noble volunteers. He sunk several ships in the channel of the river, flung a chain across the narrowest part, and placed behind it three great men of war, which had been the fruits of his valour, taken from the Dutch. At first the intrepid Monk threw himself on board these ships, with three hundred young gentlemen volunteers with pikes in their hands; but being dissuaded by his friends from so desperate and useless a post, he came on shore, otherwise he and his brave companions would have in a very small space been devoted to the flames.

"The Dutch were then approaching very fast, with all the advantages of wind and tide. With a press of sail they passed amidst the sunk ships, and broke through the chain. They hesitated about the last, and probably might have desisted, had not one Captain Brackel, at the time confined on board one of their ships for certain misbehaviour, offered to lead the way, and atone for his past misconduct. He performed his engagement; and the three ships, the Unity, the Matthias, and Charles V. were in a moment in one tremendous blaze. On the thirteenth they advanced as high as Upnor Castle, with six men of war and five fire-ships; but met with so warm a reception from Major Scott, commandant in the castle, and Sir Edward Spragge, who directed the batteries on the opposite shore, that the Dutch suffered great damage in their ships, and loss of men. But, in their return, they burnt the Loyal London, the Great James, and the Royal Oak. A Douglas, captain of the last, in the confusion of the day, had received no directions to retire. 'It never shall be said,' says he, 'that a Douglas quit-
'ted his post without orders!' so continued on board, and fell a glorious sacrifice to discipline and obedience to command. 'Whether,' observes Sir William Temple, 'it is wise in men to do such actions or no, I am sure it is so in states to honour them.'

"The Dutch carried off the hull of

* "A reason was assigned for this disaster; for, on inspection, it was found to be owing to a want of construction in the metallic conductor. See Phil. Trans. vol. lxxiii. p. 232."

the Royal Charles in triumph. In their return, two of their ships were run on shore in the Medway, and destroyed; and this, with the eight fire-ships burnt in the action, a hundred and fifty men killed, was all the loss the Dutch historians pretend they received. Much of ours was owing to the infamous conduct of Commissioner Pet, and the other civil officers, who neglected every order which was given them, and who carried away every boat to secure their own effects, when the intrepid Monk was in want of them for the most important purposes. London was struck with such a panic, that it hourly expected the enemy to burn it to the ground. Some ships were sunk at Woolwich, and some at Blackwall, and batteries erected on various parts of the river. —Great censure fell on the government; who had rashly laid up the capital ships on entering into a treaty with the Dutch, who had even then refused a suspension of arms. Still, it was said, more mischief might have been done; for, had the enemy acted with becoming vigour, neither the dock at Chatham, nor the remainder of our navy, could have escaped destruction." *Vol. i. p. 68.*

FEVERSHAM—SINGULAR ROYAL ENTERTAINMENTS.

"WHEN the Emperor Charles V. and the King's Highness Henry VIII. called here in 1522, in their way to London, the expense was 1*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.* and at the same time for a gallon of wine to the archbishop, *one shilling.*

"In the records of the town are, besides, the following curious articles:

1515, Paid for brede and wine, given to the Queen of France	0 7 4
1518, To entertain my Lord Chief Justice	0 0 9
1519, For spiced brede and wine, to the Lord Archbishop	0 5 4
For spiced brede, wine, and bere, and ale, to the King and Queen	1 6 5½
For spiced brede, wine, and capons, to my Lord Cardinal	0 18 9

"This last article evinces the character of Wolsey, who is treated here with an expense and luxury proportion-

ably superior to that of his royal master and mistress. The corporation knew his pride, and would not provoke his revenge by the least symptom of disrespect." *Vol. i. p. 95.*

RECULVER MONASTERY.

"ABOUT two hundred and twenty-six years after the desertion of Britain by the Romans, a very different race of people possessed themselves of the walls of Reculver. Egbert, King of Kent, in 669, presented the place to Bassa, a nobleman of his court, at that time in holy orders. Here he founded a monastery, which continued till the year 949, when it was annexed by King Edred to Christ Church in Canterbury. The church is far from being coeval, the windows and doors being Gothic, and the door-case made of Caen stone, which was not imported till after the conquest. Ethelbert, the fifth King of Kent, had a palace here. The tradition of his being interred on this spot is erroneous; for, according to Bede, he died in 613, and was buried in St. Paul's, in London. In his time happened the great event of the landing of St. Augustine on the east part of the Isle of Thanet, in 596. He was sent by Pope Gregory the Great, to preach the gospel to the pagan Saxons. The reason which induced his Holiness to send Augustine is pleasantly related by the author of the Life of Gregory, being a string of diverting puns. Our saint landed with forty companions, and was graciously received by Ethelbert in the open air. The king did not know but that they might have been magicians; and it is notorious that the force of magic loses much of its power *sub dio.* But they soon undeceived the monarch. Augustine quickly established himself most effectually: the monastic life got firm footing; nor was it expelled but by the powerful charms of the tyrant of the sixteenth century." *Vol. i. p. 100.*

RICHBOROUGH.

"RUTUPIÆ stood in a harbour called by the same name, Portus Rutupas, and Portus Rutupienfis, the best known to the Romans of any, and the first they were acquainted with; for it is certain Cæsar landed within its limits. As it lay most convenient to the Portus

tus Itius and Gessoriacum, the common ports of France for passing and repassing between the two kingdoms, it was constantly frequented, even to the last years of the Roman empire in Britain. Lupicinus, master of arms, sailed here in the year 360, and seems to have gone directly through the Wantsum in his way to London.—Theodosius landed here, in 364, from Boulogne. 'Defertur Rutupias stationem in adverso tranquillam.' No British port has been so greatly celebrated. Poets, historians, and geographers unite in its praise, or take notice of it as an important place. Among the first are Lucan, Juvenal, and Aufonius; Tacitus, Ammianus Marcellinus, and Orosius, among the historians; Ptolemy, Antoninus, and several other among the geographers and authors of itineraries. I must quote Juvenal * to prove the great reputation the Rutupian oysters held at Rome. They were exported to that luxurious city, notwithstanding they boasted much of their Lucrine oysters.

'Circeis nata forent, an
'Lucrinum ad Saxum, Rutupinove
edita fundo
'Ostrea.'

"The Romans had long before invented the *vivaria*, or oyster-beds, and doubtlessly introduced them here as they did their other luxuries, that they might not be disappointed of so delicate a repast." *Fol. i. p. 119.*

SANDWICH—DISTRESS OF A SHIP'S CREW.

"IN Mr. Boys's parlour I observed some small pictures of a ship in distress: he related to me the subject, and furnished me with the following melancholy episode:—In 1727 his father was second mate in the Saxborough Galley, a fine ship of thirty-two guns, fitted out by the South Sea Company, under the Assiento contract, and commanded by Captain Kellaway. Her crew, including two passengers, consisted of thirty-nine. On June 25, in their way from Jamaica to England, the ship took fire by the careless application of a candle to a punchon of rum. The head was heard to burst off with the explosion of a cannon, and the flames seized her without hopes of remedy: the

yawl was hoisted out, and twenty-two men and boys crowded into it; the long-boat remained on board on fire. In this situation, without clothes, provision, or compass, at the distance of a hundred and twenty leagues from the nearest land, they experienced all the miseries of cold, hunger, and thirst. It was proposed to fling into the sea the two boys who had occasioned the misfortune: this was overruled. It was then proposed to cast lots, and give all an equal chance of being saved, by lightening the boat, which lay deep in the water: this was opposed, and soon became unnecessary, by the death of five of the people raving mad. Hunger grew now irresistible. Mr. Scrimfour, the surgeon, proposed the eating the bodies of the dead, and drinking their blood: he made the first essay, and turned aside his head and wept. They could only relish the hearts, of which they ate three. They cut the throats of their dead companions as soon as life was departed, and found themselves refreshed and invigorated by this unnatural beverage. By the twelfth day the number was reduced to twelve; a raging sea added to their miseries: a dead duck, in a putrid state, came within their reach, and was eaten as the greatest delicacy. On July 7th despair seized them, and they lay down to die. By accident Mr. Boys raised himself and saw land: on communicating the news to the survivors they were instantly reanimated, and took to their oars. They perceived some shallows in with the land, and found themselves on the coasts of Newfoundland. They were taken on shore and treated with the utmost humanity by Captain Le Cras, of Guernsey, admiral of the harbour. Mr. Boys, with true piety, kept the day of his deliverance ever after as a fast.—The rest of his life was blessed with prosperity. He had begun his career in his Majesty's service: accident flung him into that in which he experienced so great a calamity. He returned again into the royal navy, rose to the post of captain, and hoisted the broad pendant as commander in chief of his Majesty's ships and vessels in the Thames, Medway, and Nore. At length he finished his honourable days lieutenant-governor of Greenwich Hospital, in March 4th, 1774, aged 74. It

* "Sat. IV. l. 120."

is remarkable that two of his fellow-sufferers lived to a very great age. Mr. Scrimfour, the surgeon, attained that of eighty; and George Mould, a seaman, being brought into Greenwich Hospital by the lieutenant-governor, died there at the age of about eighty-two." Vol. i. p. 130.

(To be continued.)

XIV. Mrs. Piozzi's Retrospection.— (Continued from p. 6.)

THIRTEENTH CENTURY—RESTORATION OF LEARNING—ITALY, ENGLAND, &c.

"THE opening of the thirteenth century found the world recovered from that general panic which was supposed immediately to precede her dissolution. It might perhaps occur to some of those who searched the scriptures, that neither at evening, nor at night, nor at cock-crowing*, nor in the morning was the hour appointed. The evening was past, and night came gradually on, ending in utter darkness during the Gothic ages. Robertson points out the moment of deepest obscurity, which returned, he says, with redoubled gloom after Alfred and Charlemagne had shewn the dawn at distance. The crusading times might be, I think, considered as the moment of cock-crowing, from which hour light made her gradual though slow advances towards that morning which seems to me ended with the eighteenth century.

"This light broke from *the East*: the Latin writers, lost in wonder at the superior glories of Constantinople, make use of exclamation to express their sense of surprise, and hardly can drop into cold narrative of matters which amazed them. Benjamin the Jew, and Gonthier the monk, say my readers, might be easily dazzled and amazed by sight, or even hearing of the golden tree filled with mechanic singing-birds, coloured with precious stones after nature, which was said to adorn the Greek emperor's palace; while lions, formed of the same precious metal (there so near its birth-place),

roared by inventive luxurious artifice at foot of his splendid throne. True; but *l'Histoire de la Conquête par Geoffroy de Villehardouin*, one of the highest noblemen in France, and accustomed to all the magnificence which our western hemisphere could show; bears testimony to that admiration, which even Frenchmen felt, and Italians hastened to prove, by carrying thence to their own country, those arts of life which had in all ages found the soil of Florence and of Rome propitious. Innocent III. encouraged excellence in others, and in himself united various qualities, which cannot without difficulty inhabit the same heart: but such was his peculiar care for justice, that, by frequent recitation, he learned to repeat over the pretensions of contending claimants, that he might be enabled to judge with perfect equity between them. The times were indeed past, when persons aggrieved ran to the sovereign's or pontiff's palace, and with loud outcries forced him to hear and to redress; men now decided every thing by the sword: which Innocent the III^d lamented, and endeavoured to render unnecessary, by hearing and getting every one's story by memory: yet was it no easy matter to adjust affairs between debtor and creditor, which last had no power of touching the horses, arms, or hawks of a gentleman equal with himself; and as for artisans or traders, they came not within the idea of receiving justice: and when we read of charters, immunities, and franchises, we must annex no other notion to the words, than merely manumission from actual slavery. Under Frederick Barbarossa indeed, Otho Frisingensis complains that there began to grow up *free cities in Italy*, that affected to be governed by their own magistrates; but in a century more, the emperors seeing some great lords living among these burghesses, and swearing now and then to protect them with their swords, began to form palaces for themselves at the gates, with intent to awe the inhabitants and hold them in due subjection. The free cities however would be slaves no more: after a thousand contests, they shook off all sovereignty except what they

* "Fuller, in his *Life of Hildegardis*, calls the twelfth century cock-crowing time. I know not why, but his manner of understanding the passage was distinct from mine."

created for themselves, and at last ended in independent, though petty republics.

"Italy, with much addition to her wisdom, made much increase to her wealth. Companies of merchants and traders from Lombardy, settled in various nations; a bank had been some time erected at Venice; plants of the sugar-cane had been brought from Asia, and cultivated in Sicily, whence they were carried to Spain, where we shall leave them till the woody islands, thence called by Spaniards Madera, by Portuguese Madeiras, were discovered; but Roger I. carried off many artificers in the silk trade from the crusades to Palermo; and while they were at work to adorn our western world, the Italians, trading in money, were diligent to corrupt it; exacting twenty per cent. interest at the lowest, and sometimes thirty in France and England, where people had little notion of punishing such crimes, except by excommunication, for the criminals were too mean to be called out for duel. Foreigners, indeed, devoured England quite at their pleasure, and our commerce was yet at a low ebb; no treaty of that nature appearing, till one was made with Haquin King in Norway, about 1215. London, roofed with thatch, and containing only 40,000 inhabitants, as Peter de Blois asserts, who lived there long, could scarce deserve Fitzstephen's pompous description of it, I think, while chimneys were unknown even to houses where the baron drank from out his silver cups. Day was however beginning to break even in the north: the coast of Schonen was observed to swarm with herrings; and Arnold de Lubec thanks God very properly for that discovery, which, as he said, fed the southern nations of Europe, and clothed the northern ones with manufactures—not with skins as formerly. Literature kept pace in advancement: and whereas a book had till near the year 1200 been esteemed a commutation for sin, if bequeathed to a church library, where many had been presented *pro remedio animæ sue*, in order to obtain peace for the soul of him who gave it; the Countess of Anjou paid two hundred sheep, five quarters of wheat only, and five quarters of rye and millet for some sermons written by the bishop of Halberstadt; and paper being grown of common use,

people were no longer obliged to scratch out Livy's Decades in order to copy over on the same parchment the legend of Cecilia perhaps, or the romance of Sir Alifandre. Innocent III. was himself a scholar, and wrote a *Treatise de Contemptu Mundi*, beside the *Stabat Mater*, which is not even yet forgotten; the Spanish Saracens, and even Jews, contributed to dig up the germ of philosophy, the seed of which was after so well diffeminated; and Martinus Scotus lent his assistance in the useful work of translating; and although private wars, carried on with rancorous hatred between private families in every nation, still subsisted, and quarrels of individuals were decided by single combat, *some* law was known, and *some* was accepted, and men did not in this century, as in the preceding one, when two grandsons disputed succession in a barony against their uncles, brothers to the deceased, look with perplexity on a case so intricate, and resolve that the gordian knot, which none could untie, should at length be cut; when choosing two champions, one for the uncles, the other for the grandsons, their relations set them out armed cap-a-pee, to settle it with their lives. Happily the right heirs' combatant succeeded, and brothers of a dead baron contended for his estate no more against the immediate descendants of his person. Riga and Flenzburg had in the last century reared up their rough heads; the first stone of this last-named city was laid by Waldemar, grandfather to Margaret, known afterwards to history by name of the Semiramis of the North: and universities starting up daily in various countries, showed that war alone was not completely and positively, in the days we are reviewing, the sole concern of man.

"Our own country's situation, brought nearer to *Retrospection's* eye by the approximating powers of Shakspeare, makes one feel as if less far removed from learning's restoration than we really were in the days of King John, under whose reign flourished Bishop Grossthead, a man whose rugged manners, and cruel punishment of light carriage or refractory nuns, was well counterbalanced by deep and wide erudition, and by his commendable spirit of battling in favour of the English clergy against foreigners, for which he

was very near incurring sentence of excommunication: although 'tis now supposed that the cause of general literature was in such times rather promoted than impeded by rendering our island a sort of mart for distant professors, and encouraging that commerce in every branch of knowledge which importation naturally tends to produce. Yet Fleury, candid, elegant, and amiable Fleury, whose piety emanates in gentleness, whose scholarship, a comment upon common sense, never yet overlaid one grain of it with learned lumber; laments the ill success and danger of a prelate, who in this early dawn of future day dared cry aloud against Papal usurpations; in consequence of which, most of our rich benefices were occupied by Italians, notwithstanding the vigorous efforts of our own people, who now gave much of their time to study. Aristotle's Ethics, and I believe Politics, had worked their way through Arabic versions from the East to England, and were, at the time we speak of, translating into Latin: yet my readers must not suppose *all* the clergy could write and read that language familiarly: they were for the most part of a different cast. An old entry shows how an archdeacon of Richemont, in Yorkshire, came to Bridlington priory with ninety-six fine horses, twenty-one dogs, and three hawks—a *faire establissement* is the expression—he had also one *large book, unborrowed*: yet Velley says that cantadours and musars, violars and tale-tellers, were beyond all enumeration in these days. Thibaut, King of Navarre, composed and set the pretty verses preserved by Dr. Burney, and translated *totidem syllabis*, containing his adventure with a country girl, which I have heard an old Frenchman, native of le Gevaudan, sing to the tune printed in Burney's History of Music. He was in love with Queen Blanche, as I remember, although 'tis plain he could not boast a rigid constancy, like that of Rudelle. The kings of France and England set bad examples of conjugal deportment; and Innocent III. himself a Frenchman, descended from Lothaire, endeavoured a long time, with fruitless pains, to reconcile Philip Augustus with his consort Ingeburgha, whom he kept confined in her own private palace, whilst he lived publicly with Mary, daughter to the Duke of

Bohemia, who usurped regal honour, and behaved as if actually queen. The Pope, however, finding no remonstrance, or even censure, had the least effect upon their manners, laid (as he had threatened) their whole land under an interdict, forbidding all ecclesiastical functions for six months, except baptism of infants, and absolution of penitents at point of death. Every church was hung with black, and the same colour covered all devotional pillars in the street: the crucifixes and images were laid on the floors, and a sable pall thrown over them. No preaching heard, no prayers read, no psalms sung, no sacrament administered, no procession permitted, no holyday kept. The people were shocked, were terrified; and flocked in frightened crowds about the palace, demanding their sovereign lady's restoration, and the dismissal of adulterous Mary. While such incidents are objects of *Retrospect* alone, readers will pause perhaps, and wonder why—but in the thirteenth century business and pleasure both depended on devotion. Those artificers who were not kept in some great baron's castle to work for *him*, derived their subsistence chiefly by labouring for the decoration of ecclesiastical dignity; all such were starving for employment, therefore, a circumstance which might affect even an English bottom: while those who relied on festive shows for their amusement, sat pining and nerveless, and found no means of passing away the time; a case that should excite compassion in my female readers, for ladies loved diversion then as now, and were detained from it by the unpleasing carefulness of mothers. A Northfolke dame's counselle to hyr childe, written not long after, advises her thus:

And goe rotte to the wrestlinge or
shootinge of the coc,
An as it werre a madde wench or a
giglotte;
And lough notte to scorne nodir olde,
nodir yong,
But be of good beryng, and have a
good tonge,

were injunctions as it appears ever
needful in England, where to satirize
their companions seemed always to
constitute much of the women's pleasure
in public places. A Papal interdict
was, in short, such a calamity as no
nation would long endure, and Philip

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felt himself forced by it to recall Ingelburgha, and drive the beautiful supplanter from his arms, however he might retain her in his affections. Certain it is, he never received the patient queen to personal favour or even *endurance*, till news was brought him that Bohemian Mary had accepted another lover. The French nation meanwhile, partial to Danish blood, would not receive the king's son by that lady, as heir to their crown. He was made Earl of Boulogne, and his sister, first affianced to our young Prince Arthur, was, after his death, Dutchess of Lorraine; during which time Lewis, sole child of Ingelburgha, was solemnly recognised Dauphin of France, and compensated his father's unkindness by every mark of filial affection to the Princess of Denmark, whose nature was softer than her name." Vol. i. p. 319.

KING JOHN—INSTANCES OF SORDID BRIBERY.

"MR. Gray says somewhere, and says very wisely, that the *Retrospect* of error is serviceable when it tends to vindicate the lessons of truth. Our King John's strange behaviour contributed against his own intention to ascertain his people's future liberties—a baby succor coming to the throne somewhat accelerated the then distant moment; for although governed by the wife Earl of Pembroke, justly so called, that Earl of Pembroke was at most a steward; and who ever saw a steward yet, that would not favour tenants rather than their landlord? The tender prince willingly confirmed our famous Magna Charta, wherein clauses were added propitious to the poor, and of consolation to the people, not then deemed dangerous by their haughty lords, who each kept up a show of royalty within their separate castles, where the seneschal* and chancellor, constable and chamberlain, lived as in petty courts; while mercenary exactions were by them prac-

tised on inferior classes, as by the sovereign himself on the nobility; till the bribes openly given and received, even shock a modern reader with the recital: witness the story how Hugh de Oysel presented King Henry with two robes, of a green colour, for the sake of obtaining, through his influence over some Flemish merchants, one thousand marks, which the said Oysel had left in Flanders, and could not get away; and Hoveden tells us how Richard de Neville gave one of our kings twenty palfreys for his Grace's good word with Isolda Biget, a beautiful French lady whom he wished to marry. King John had three greyhounds given on a like account, if I remember, and they had classic names, Achilles, Hannibal, and Hector: the last has been a common name for greyhounds ever since. We read likewise in some of the old books that Dame Nichole paid one hundred marks for permission to marry her daughter to whoever she pleased, the king's mimics alone excepted; nor can I find whether the exception was made because of royalty or conscience, for it had been decreed some years before, that mimics must not be admitted to receive the holy sacrament. Such sordid desire of accumulating wealth suits but ill, as it should seem, with military pride: and even *Pamour des dames*, of which so much was said, appears to have been swallowed up in avaricious rapacity, when records inform us how Robert de Vaux gave our sovereign six Lombardy steeds, and a famous hawk beside, to make him hold his tongue, and tell no tales of Henri de Pinel's wife, whose reputation seems to have depended on his silence. Such indeed was the frequency of bribes in those days, and such the necessity of an inferior's offering visible inducements to persuade nobles or princes to act as it is now deemed indispensable for every man of honour to do without persuasion, that Saint Lewis of France was canonized for having taken no presents to pervert the course of law; and Innocent III. had been justly enough

* "The seneschal was a person of no small consequence. There is an old tale in *Gesta Romanorum*, how an old baron left his favourite child and dog, both creatures of inestimable value, under the care of five knights, to be fed by the seneschalle. This officer, neglectful of his charge, and going out to visit a neighbouring female, the starved blood-hound devours the baby, whilst the knights were called forth in quest of food. The nobleman returning, and hearing this tale, burns the seneschalle alive."

half adored for a like delicacy in all civil cases, although he scrupled not to sell indulgences without hesitation: angelic Fleury blames such conduct, but softens down the facts he is unable to deny. He says too, with what unjustifiable severity the court and church of Rome acted towards Bishop Grossthead, who opposed their usurpations about 1235. The pope of that day thirsted for his blood, says he; and was dissuaded by a favourite cardinal from going to extremes, chiefly because the subtle and penetrating Italian had observed to him that England even then fate looser than other realms did towards the see, adding, My heart tells me that island will quit or break from us one day; and so it did, continues Fleury, three hundred years after his true prediction. Warton mentions a book, called *Roman d' Antichrist*, about this period; and Grossthead gave broad hints that the character was fast filling up at Rome, which was now certainly become the scarlet city, as she had long been the sanguinary. Red hats were bestowed as a new distinction upon cardinals; and the three pontiffs who followed each other in succession after Innocent, added splendour to their city without losing aught of her authority. But every high mountain has a plain upon its top, where you run level for a while before descent commences; and there seems to be a sort of solstitial pause in governments, when they have reached their utmost elevation: perhaps the appearance may be fallacious, owing to the *obliquity* of the sphere; those who live under the *equator* are not conscious of it; yet it was undoubtedly so with pagan, and I think with papal Rome. Contentions concerning the blessed Trinity, and its inexplicable nature, had ended some time since; yet were those disputes rather finished by fatigue at last, than reconciled by reason or reflection: for however we see fire, water, and air, creatures exposed to constant observation, subsisting in and for and through and by each other all day long; there never was wise mortal could tell *how*: and yet this limited and arrogant animal, this still more unaccountable *man*, will daringly presume to pry into his Maker's essence, and resist redemption till he is made acquainted with the constituent substance of his Redeemer, never discovering by common sense, what in-

difference and apathy embraced as soon as found:

That points obscure 't were of small use to learn,
But common quiet was mankind's concern.

Oh wretched state of poor humanity! While I am lamenting the fervour which glowed up into madness in the early ages of Christianity, insulting Heaven by trying to tear down the mystic veil that keeps our sight from agony of knowledge, I am forced to regret that in the days I am writing no spark of fervour seems to remain at all; no warmth of love, no zealous spirit of defence, no desire of impressing our truly petrified hearts either with ideas of the glorious majesty of a judging God, or sweet remembrance of a meek and gentle Saviour. The sanctifying Spirit seems far off too: is it too late to pray the Comforter for consolation? Let us make haste before the doors be shut." Vol. i. p. 338.

FRIAR BACON—ROBIN HOOD—LEWIS
IX.—PREFERENCE OF FOREIGNERS.

"THIS genius of gigantic mould, lifting his head above surrounding vapours, saw soon how chemistry might be applied to her best uses, medicine. He discovered the powers of a burning-glass, and the proportions of a camera-obscura: he knew the spherical figure of our earth, and was (as one would think) by intuition well persuaded of what experience has since confirmed. He looked on science as Moses on the Promised Land from Pisgah, and discerned effects in their possibilities. His skill in mechanism may have been too highly praised; his conviction of its efficacy to purposes then unknown, cannot be sufficiently admired. We have done nothing since the time of Roger Bacon beyond his capacity of hope and of belief. Gunpowder, aether, electricity, are but new names for things easily, though faintly to be described, by those who carefully examine his *Opus magnum*, where it appears that he knew every thing except the vast extent of human folly, which after wondering at such wisdom, deemed it madness: and after mature deliberation, resolved to denounce it as witchcraft.

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"Those dubious days could not distinguish superiority from eccentricity of character. Five suns, supposed to have appeared all at once, disgrace the remarkable occurrences of this reign, and disgrace it the more, because the grand conjunction of planets in Libra had been observed all over Europe in 1186. But the world, as Fuller says, sees most visions when she is most blind; and fairies now, a new importation of semi-deities from the East, were seriously believed in. This is so true, that the Ashmolean collection of MSS. at Oxford, exhibits 'A sure way to bind a faery, Elaby Gathon by name, and hold her to a Venice glass meekly and mildly, till she have answered all lawful questions.' Ireland, where this folly flourished still better than with us, is said to have named a whole district from these tripping elves; *o'ferri* land, or land *o'faeries*, as *Gatton* in Surrey was called after *Elaby*."

"There is a humorous story recorded too, how the Earl of Devonshire, A.D. 1240, asked a farmer of his how he could bear his situation, seeing that his grange was reported to be much troubled by faeries, which, adds the nobleman, may peradventure be spirits from hell. 'Right honoured Lord' (replied the quaint fellow), 'there be verily two saints blessed in heaven which do trouble me more than all the devils in hell, and in true sadness those be the Mother of our Lord and St. Michael the archangel, because it is on their days that I am bound to pay his dues to the good Earl of Devonshire.'

"If Bryant's derivation of the gryphons be a true one, *kir-ouph-on* pronounced quick and short, as is most likely: the *ouph* comes from the same country as that composite animal, which Milton, ever accurate though sublime, describes so properly:

'As when a gryphon through the wilderness
'With winged course o'er hill or moory dale
'Pursues the Arimaspiæ, who by stealth
'Had from his wakeful custody purloin'd
'The guarded gold,' &c.

* "From Elaby comes *lullaby*, *Pelaby*, invoked by mothers and nurses to watch over the sleeping babe, who, safe in her protection, was in no danger of being changed by wicked spirits into an idiot, whence *changeling*."

themselves

"About the year 1236 was published a romance called *Alisaunder*, or *Escander's Achievements of Knight-hood*; he soared in the air by help of *gryphons*, coming very near the moon, and with aid of a magical glass, dived in the deep and saw the fishes swim: perhaps Shakspeare alluded to this stuff when *Hotspur* says—

'By heaven methinks it were an easy leap
'To pluck bright honour from the pale-fac'd moon,
'Or dive into the bottom of the deep,
'And drag up drowned honour by the locks.'

"The scholars say, indeed, that even this book was borrowed from a Persian manuscript, and wits tell one that Scuderi drew many incidents from thence. Certain it is, that Alexander's exploits were remembered in the East a prodigious time, and with unobliterated veneration: his history by Quintus Curtius, although unmentioned for 1000 years after the author's death, was one of the earliest books on the revival of literature, and Montfaucon mentions a copy in the Colbertine library, as early as the year 800; the following extract from which may be cited to excuse the numberless things to be forgiven in this summary: '*Equidem plura transcribo quam credo; nam nec affirmare sustineo de quibus dubito, nec subducere que accepi*;' but the awkward imitators add a story of Alexander's *bugle-born*, which no wight but himself could wield, and might be heard sixty miles. Boyardo and Berni enjoyed this horn too; it dropt to them, but not till Robin Hood had done with it. He was a sort of secondary hero among us in the thirteenth century: Dr. Stukely thinks he was an outlawed Earl of Huntingdon *Fitz-Ooth*, easily corrupted to Fitzhood, and mentions his coat-armour. Whatever he was *before*, he was *after* his outlawry, as I imagine, Robin *o'th'ood*, meaning of *the wood*, corrupted to Hood; and the manner in which he and his companions lived among *forests*, defending and providing for

themselves with their bow, is interesting and curious, and strongly marks the manners of the times*. That 't was by a gradual and long course of experiments that men's eyes opened to wisdom and decorum, may be exemplified by recollecting how Lewis the Dauphin (he who had invaded England), desiring a marriage with Urraca, daughter of Alphonso King of Spain, by a sister of Cœur de Lion, was turned from his purpose on its being represented to him that the princess, though fair, had a very *unlucky name*, and would certainly bring him no children. He accordingly wedded her sister Lady Blanche, of fewer charms but happier appellation, and on her was made the verse preserved by Camden in his Remaynes of a greater work:

* *Candida, candescens, candore in cordis et oris.*

"While Urraca, rejected by all, hid her unfortunate name in a nunnery, where she was called sister Teresa; and her sponsors' cruelty lay unremembered in men's minds, till her death, by fall of a slate or tile as she was walking in the convent garden, revived the recollection that 't was indeed *unlucky*. Lady Blanche, meanwhile, made mother of

St. Lewis, an exemplary prince, confirmed mankind in these fantastic notions; the more, perhaps, as, being regent in her son's minority, she soon suppressed the barons' bold rebellion headed by Philip, the first Duke of Orleans, uncle and competitor to his lawful king; from whom her forces took the castle of Blois, forcing him into submission, and I think to banishment. A marriage between her incomparable son Lewis IX. and the daughter of unhappy Raymond Comte de Thoulouse, produced another blessing to all Europe, the end of a truly savage war, long carried on in his dominions against the Albigenes. *Languedoc*, so named from *langue de got*, as many think, being from that time united to the crown of France: some Huguenots have always sheltered there; we saw them inhabiting Grenoble and its environs when the communion was administered in a cave for privacy, so late as 1786.

"But this inimitable sovereign turned his arms only against the Turks and Saracens; to them he showed himself son of Lewis, surnamed the Lion, performing acts worthy a hero, while his own country flourished at home as under the protection of a saint. 'Such 'was his faith,' says Bossuet, 'that one

* "The old ballad which tells how

'The father of Robin a forester was,
'And shot in a lustie long bow;

must, if this account be true, suffer dismissal from our *Retrospection*, and I should confess myself sorry, because when they brought

'Adam Bell and Clym of the clough,
'And William of Cloudestye,
'To shoot with our forester for forty marks,
'Our forester beat them all three.'

"Though the last saved his own and his companions lives long after by his archery, when the king hearing that his sheriff and justices were all shot at merye Carlisle, attempting to take these outlaws, sent troops to bring them to London; but they were come of themselves, or at least bold William of Cloudestye, who brought his little boy beside to beg a charter of peace. And now, says King Henry, they shall sure be hanged; but the queen requested their life; and her husband said, Let us see them shoot which have cost us all this care. After many feats, William set an apple upon his own child's head, and standing one hundred and twenty yards distance, cleft it with an arrow. The king had sworn that if he missed, the attempt should revoke his pardon.

'For if thou touch his head or gown,
'In fyghte that men may see,
'By all the sayntes that sit in heaven,
'I'll hang you up all three.'

"Success in that business saved and advanced them all, and the youth was made cellar-keeper to the queen."

'would

'would have thought him eye-witness of his Saviour's sufferings; and such his works, as if he had made him the immediate, not remote model for his imitation.'

"Another of his panegyrists says—'I have myself seen the saint sit under a spreading tree, and patiently hearing his subjects complain of mutual oppression or offence, render them the strictest justice.'

"He published likewise a wise ordinance, known by the name of Royal Truce, prohibiting all persons from commencement of hostilities against an adversary till forty days had elapsed since the cause of quarrel had been given or found: this gave time for friends to interpose, and for the parties themselves to cool; and greatly contributed to restrain those internal and private wars which thinned population, drenched all lands with blood, and disgraced humanity during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries. Monarchs were, indeed, diligent to stop a practice so ruinous to their realms, and so insulting to their authority; and the invention of giving bonds not to draw out their forces for such or such a limited time began to be adopted, to the no small consolation of vassals, who were till then obliged to follow their superior lord into the field, and fight against their neighbours in his quarrel. 'Twas kings who civilized the world a second time, by synthetizing what had been too much broken into small parts; and the peasant, artisan, &c. felt relieved from his too nearly approximated tyrant, in proportion as monarchy gained ascendancy over the nobles, and kept their cruelties in check.

"To accelerate that happy moment, we find Ferdinand of Castile fixing a yet existing seminary at Salamanca, and Alphonso X. brother to Lady Blanche, seeking renown for his knowledge in astronomy, and composing tables for that science, which to this hour go by his name. The impious speech concerning his knowing better how to construct a solar system than God Almighty, was, we hope, only a strong and coarse expression of contempt for the Ptolemaic hypothesis. A prince who was said to possess a fine copy of the Holy Scriptures, which he had read six times through, was most unlikely sure to be an infidel; and he

who made it his pleasure to contemplate the starry heavens, could never have been an atheist: while his quiet unresisting spirit of humility, when his favourite son Don Sancho deposed and drove him into retirement, manifested less of haughtiness or vain glory, than of Christian resignation to an enemy still dearer and cherished, however rebellious and unworthy.

"Northern nations retained the frost upon their literature longer. The violent out-break of Gillespie Roffe stains the Scottish annals, when Cathness all rose up at once, and burned the bishop in his bed for having exacted too large a bribe from one of their nobility. Private wars went on fiercely in those countries, where the exploits of Percy and Douglas yet serve happily as materials for two beautiful modern dramas; and Thomas, a bastard of the high constable, Alan of Galway, invaded his half-sisters, to whom their father had left his inheritance, with no fewer than a thousand men, armed in his cause, who wasted their lands with fire and sword, much to the shame of gallantry and knightood; till Roger de Quincy, married to one of the ladies, fought and killed this sturdy marauder, and in the same battle dispersed his adherents for ever. Women, not seldom enough to excite wonder, appeared on horseback, with *spurs* *sharp*, as Chaucer afterwards describes his Wife of Bath, animating the men who combated in their defence; and if they were feudatorial inheritors, wore their father's device, or, as we call it, coat-armour, emblazoned in a *lozenge* (they were ashamed to bear a *shield*) on their breast. Hume says they acted, if possessed of land, as sheriffs of that county they inhabited; and to say truth, Spenser's Lady of the Castle glances at this old custom. Meanwhile our Third Henry displeased his subjects much by his offensive preference of foreigners, or, as they were then styled, *aliens*; and I think we may date from his reign that spirit of claiming exclusive attention from their sovereign which in succeeding times has always marked an Englishman. When in the year 1250 he held a showy festival in France, a jocolator, born in Hampshire, stepped forward, 'as we are told, and with a permitted gibe, said—'Send away Cœur de Lion's shield out of the hall, my liege, else your

'your fine dinner will have no digesters. You see these French fellows are afraid to look on it: the thoughts of Richard takes away their appetite.' This was more than a biting jest, for 't was a true one. Joinville acknowledges that when a Frenchman's horse started under him, the common exclamation of anger was, '*Qu'as tu? vois tu le Roi Richard?*' What ails you? do you see King Richard coming? Such pageants had been exhibited in Westminster, however, in honour of the marriage between Henry III. of England and Eleanor de Provence *, as made all Europe marvel: such pypping and tabouring, as the old bookes express it, with sports, gestes, and diseurs, innumerable. Tales beside, new and old, of St. Theusus and his hunting-match (whence Shakespear's description of his hounds), and Launcelot du Lac, a story in high vogue, with a spiritual remembrancer of Jesus hanging on a roode, whilst a bafe and recreant knight came forth and *jousted* with him, fetching blood and water from his side with his lance; but Joseph of Arimathea, creeping out, holdeth a bottle under, and bringeth into Albion to cure all diseases, that precious relique.

"Such was the renown of these celebrations, and so were the expenses of their decorations admired at, that although the birth of Cimabue announced the nascent arts budding in Italy, Pope Innocent IV. said that he half lamented that new dignity which hindered him from attending so very elegant and edifying a show: finding it, however, wholly impossible to come over himself in person, he sent his old favourite fool to partake the festivities, and who received thirty shillings beside from our sovereign, *royal gift*: nor was it merely for the sake of such nonsense that the learned Genoese, so respected for his knowledge and virtue, while Cardinal St. Lorenzo, wished to witness our improvements in Great Britain; he desired to behold *Divitias Londini* as well as *Delicias Westmonasterii*, as he said. We had a mayor and aldermen established then for conservation of our city's peace, and sterling money coined for common use, called so, as some say, from the figure

of a starling imprest upon the metal. Reading-glasses and spectacles facilitated every branch of science, and commerce began to call in the arts and luxuries of other realms. The distractions of Ireland, indeed, torn by the factious quarrels of Mac Arthys and Geraldines, yielded the conquering country little save disquiet, evincing ever the sad effects of a too feeble government, that wished for plunder rather than authority; while Wales, unwilling to yield up her independence, continued to oppose what she was unable to subdue; and the *Diam* of Kennelworth confesses the melancholy state of society in provinces far removed from the capital even of England, where knights and 'squires caught in robbery, if they had no land, were doomed to give half their goods to the king, and find security for future good behaviour. This, however, was better than the mode adopted in the century before this, when no nearer method could be found to keep people safe from such banditti, than the fetching out some bishop who lived near, to curse the thieves, which he did by saying, 'May your eyes be blind who see but to covet your neighbours' goods, and may your hands be disabled that seek to steal them.' If this had no effect, the matter was hopeless, and the plunderers could be subdued only by superior force. Softer manners were gaining ground in France, where to the court of love and honour, now so long erected, all high and grave disputes of gallantry and heroism appealed, as the head-quarters of amorous and valiant etiquette. Fontenelle acknowledges that the records of this court were the legitimate parents of French poesy, and that *Scuderi à puisé bien la dedans*, when the romances of Clelia and the Grand Cyrus were composed. But Lewis IX. was born to confer happiness in this world, and receive it in the other: he maintained every institution likely to dispense comforts and blessings among his own subjects, and heard, not without horror, how the Emperor had corrupted Pietro di Vinci, page to Pope Innocent, and prevailed on him to seek his sovereign's life; but being detected by the fool before-mentioned, he had the strange

* "Second daughter, I think, to Raymond Comte de Thoulouse."

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presence of mind to escape punishment by running suddenly against the wall, and dashing his brains out before the pontiff's face." Vol. i. p. 343.

(To be continued.)

XV. *The Life of David Garrick, Esq.*

By ARTHUR MURPHY, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 775. 14s. (With a Portrait.) *Wright.*

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GARRICK'S PERFORMANCE OF LEAR

"IT was in Lear's madness that Garrick's genius was remarkably distinguished. He had no sudden starts, no violent gesticulation; his movements were slow and feeble; misery was depicted in his countenance; he moved his head in the most deliberate manner; his eyes were fixed, or, if they turned to any one near him, he made a pause, and fixed his look on the person after much delay; his features at the same time telling what he was going to say, before he uttered a word. During the whole time he presented a sight of woe and misery, and a total alienation of mind from every idea but that of his unkind daughters. He was used to tell how he acquired the hints that guided him, when he began to study this great and difficult part: he was acquainted with a worthy man, who lived in Leman Street, Goodman's Fields; this friend had an only daughter, about two years old; he stood at his dining-room window, fondling the child, and dangling it in his arms, when it was his misfortune to drop the infant into a flagged area, and killed it on the spot. He remained at his window screaming in agonies of grief. The neighbours flocked to the house, took up the child, and delivered it dead to the unhappy father, who wept bitterly, and filled the street with lamentations. He lost his senses, and from that moment never recovered his understanding. As he had a sufficient fortune, his friends chose to let him remain in his house, under two keepers appointed by Dr. Monro. Garrick frequently went to see his distracted friend, who passed the remainder of

his life in going to the window, and there playing in fancy with his child. After some dalliance, he dropped it, and hurrying into a flood of tears, filled the house with shrieks of grief and bitter anguish. He then sat down, in a pensive mood, his eyes fixed on one object, at times looking slowly round him, as if to implore compassion. Garrick was often present at this scene of misery, and was ever after used to say, that it gave him the first idea of King Lear's madness. This writer has often seen him rise in company to give a representation of this unfortunate father. He leaned on the back of a chair, seeming with parental fondness to play with a child, and, after expressing the most heartfelt delight, he suddenly dropped the infant, and instantly broke out in a most violent agony of grief, so tender, so affecting, and pathetic, that every eye in company was moistened with a gush of tears. 'There it was,' said Garrick, 'that I learned to imitate madness; I copied nature, and to that owed my success in King Lear.' It is wonderful to tell that he descended from that first character in tragedy, to the part of Abel Drugger; he represented the tobacco-boy in the truest comic style: no grimace, no starting, no wild gesticulation. He seemed to be a new man. Hogarth, the famous painter, saw him in Richard III. and on the following night in Abel Drugger: he was so struck, that he said to Garrick, 'You are in your element when you are begrimed with dirt, or up to your elbows in blood.'

"The managers of Drury Lane and Covent Garden played to thin houses, while Garrick drew the town after him; and the actors beheld his prodigious success with an evil eye. Quin, in his sarcastic vein, said, 'This is the wonder of a day; Garrick is a new religion; the people follow him as another Whitfield, but they will soon return to church again.' The joke was relished, and soon spread through the town. Garrick thought it required an answer: he replied in the following Epigram:

'Pope Quin, who damns all churches but his own,
'Complains that Heresy infects the town;

- 'That Whitfield Garrick has misled the age,
'And taints the sound religion of the stage.
'He says that Schism has turn'd the nation's brain,
'But eyes will open, and to church again.
'Thou grand infallible! forbear to roar;
'Thy bulls and errors are rever'd no more.
'When doctrines meet with general approbation,
'It is not Herefy but Reformation.'

"Quin was now, like his own Falstaff, not only witty in himself, but the cause of wit in others. The lines contain more truth than is generally found in epigrams. Garrick's style of acting was universally acknowledged to be a reformation. He was the undoubted master of the sock and buskin. He aspired also to the rank of a dramatic writer; and to the Lying Valet, which had been performed with applause, he added the farce of *Lethe*, in which he acted three different characters. In the month of May 1741, he closed the season at Goodman's Fields, after a career of the most brilliant success." *Vol. i. p. 27.*

FRENCH DANCERS OPPOSED BY THE PUBLIC—ANECDOTE OF GEORGE II.

"SEPTEMBER 1755, to June 1756. —An unexpected storm gathered over Garrick's head in the beginning of this season. He had employed the summer in planning schemes for the entertainment of the town, and was resolved to spare no expense in preparing scenery and splendid decorations. For this purpose, he invited an artist, celebrated throughout Europe for his skill in all the graceful movements of dancing, and the art of presenting a regular story in dumb show. Such an exhibition would most probably have the attraction of novelty, and supersede the necessity of introducing those monstrous pantomimes, with which Mr. Lun hoped he could silence Shakspeare, Jonson, Otway, and Rowe. The person whose dances were admired at every court on the continent, was Monsieur Noverre, a native of Switzerland. Garrick entered into a most liberal engagement with him, and

gave him a commission to enlist in his service the best performers he could find. Noverre arrived in London in the month of August, with a band of no less than a hundred chosen for his purpose. He went to work immediately, and gave directions to carpenters, scene-painters, taylor, and, in the mean time, exercised his dancers for an exhibition called, *The Chinese Festival*. The scribblers, the small wits, and the whole tribe of disappointed authors, declared war against the manager. In newspapers, essays, and paragraphs, they railed at an undertaking calculated, as they said, to maintain a gang of Frenchmen. The spirit of the inferior class was roused, and spread like wildfire through London and Westminster. Garrick was alarmed, but still thought he could avert the impending storm. The King had never seen him act; this he stated to the Duke of Grafton, then Lord Chamberlain, and made it his request to have the honour of appearing before his Majesty, when, according to custom, on the day of opening the session of parliament, he honoured the playhouse with his presence. The favour was granted, and Richard III. was announced by command. This contrivance, Garrick flattered himself, would preserve peace and good order. His performance of Richard, and the royal presence, he hoped, would procure a quiet reception for the *Chinese Festival*. He found himself mistaken. The play being finished, the dancers entered, and all was noise, tumult, and commotion. His Majesty was amazed at the uproar; but, being told that it was because people hated the French, he smiled, and withdrew from a scene of confusion. The affray continued without intermission above an hour. In the mean time, Mr. Fitzherbert, father of Lord St. Helens, and possessed of wit, humour, and politeness, almost beyond any gentleman of that day, went into the green room, where the present writer happened to be. He had been, in consequence of an office which he held, one of the attendants in the King's box. Garrick was impatient to know what his Majesty thought of Richard. 'I can say nothing on that head,' replied Mr. Fitzherbert, 'but when an actor told Richard, "The Mayor of London comes to greet you," the King roused himself; and

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and when Tafwell entered buffooning the character, the King exclaimed, "Duke of Grafton, I like that Lord Mayor;" and when the scene was over, he said again, "Duke of Grafton, that is good Lord Mayor".—"Well! but the warlike bustle, the drums and trumpets, and the shouts of soldiers, must have awakened a great military genius."—"I can say nothing of that," replied Mr. Fitzherbert; "but when Richard was in Bosworth field, roaring for a horse, his Majesty said, "Duke of Grafton, will that Lord Mayor not come again?"

"After some time passed in merriment, Garrick's friends advised him to think no more of the Chinese Festival; but the experiment was repeated three or four nights more. The opposition went on with additional violence. Gentlemen of rank leaped out of the boxes to support the manager. Swords were drawn, but John Bull still hated Frenchmen, though the band imported by Noverre were Italians, Swiss, and Germans. At last the rioters resolved to end the contest; they tore up the benches, broke the lustres, threw down the partitions of the boxes, and, mounting the stage, demolished the Chinese scenery. The necessary repairs took five or six days, and, in the interval, public notice was given, that the proposed entertainment was laid aside for ever. The popular fury was appeased, and the business of the theatre went on without interruption." *Vol. i. p. 276.*

ANECDOTE OF DR. MUNSEY.

"THE following anecdote may, perhaps, amuse the reader. On the morning after the farce (*Apprentice*) was acted, Mr. Garrick paid the author a visit, and brought with him the celebrated Dr. Munsey, whom this writer had never seen. Garrick entered the dining-room, and turning suddenly round, ran to the door and called out, 'Dr. Munsey, where are you going?'—"Up stairs to see the author," said Munsey. 'Pho! pho! come down, the author is here.' Dr. Munsey came, and, as he entered the room, said, in his free way, 'You scoundrel! I was going up to the garret: who could think of finding an author on the first floor?' After

this introduction, the Doctor sat down, and was highly diverting for near an hour. He rose on a sudden, and, 'Well! Garrick,' said he, 'I have had enough of this, and now I'll go and see the tall woman at Charing Cross.' From that time the present writer was intimate with Dr. Munsey, and found him on all occasions a most pleasant companion." *Vol. i. p. 282.*

GARRICK'S LAST APPEARANCE ON THE STAGE.

"WE come now to the close of the season in June 1776. On the 10th of that month our English Roscius made his last bow to the public. To him it was a moment big with regret, with sorrow, and heartfelt gratitude. He was for some time inclined to end his course with the part that he at first set out with; but, upon consideration, he judged, that after the fatigue of so laborious a character as Richard III. it would be out of his power to utter a farewell word to the audience. He, therefore, chose the part of Don Felix in the comedy of *The Wonder*. He knew that he was to go through a severe trial, but he mustered up his spirits, resolved to exert himself through the night with his utmost vigour, and show himself, *qualis ab incepto*, a great actor to the last. Public notice was given, that the profits of the night were to be assigned to the fund for the relief of those, who should be obliged by their infirmities to retire from the stage." *Vol. ii. p. 129.*

"The thought of parting was a heavy weight on Garrick's spirits. His mind was clouded and depressed by a number of reflections that occurred to a man of his sensibility; and yet he not only contrived to write a lively prologue, but, with an air of gaiety, delivered it in his usual manner. Having diverted the audience, and dispelled the gloom that hung over his mind, he went through the part of Don Felix with great humour and well-dissembled vivacity. The end of the play was the awful moment. He was then to take his final leave of the public, whose protection he had enjoyed during a number of years. With a countenance that plainly spoke what was working at his heart, he stepped forward, and, after some pause, addressed the audience in the following words, which were on the next day published

published in the newspapers, and from them reprinted in the magazines of that time.

"Ladies and Gentlemen,

"It has been customary with persons under my circumstances to address you in a farewell epilogue. I had the same intention, and turned my thoughts that way; but I found myself then as incapable of writing such an epilogue, as I should be now of speaking it.

"The jingle of rhyme and the language of fiction would but ill suit my present feelings.

"This is to me a very awful moment: it is no less than parting for ever with those, from whom I have received the greatest kindness, and upon the spot, where that kindness and your favours were enjoyed." (*Here his voice failed him; he paused, till a gush of tears relieved him.*) "Whatever may be the changes of my future life, the deepest impression of your kindness will always remain here—here in my heart, fixed, and unalterable.

"I will very readily agree to my successors having more skill and ability for their station than I have had; but I defy them all to take more uninterrupted pains for your favour, or to be more truly sensible of it, than is your grateful humble servant."

"Having uttered these sentiments, he bowed respectfully to all parts of the house, and in a slow pace, and much hesitation, withdrew for ever from their presence.

"The audience felt their loss; they saw, for the last time, the man, whose character had been given, in the truest colours, by Dr. Browne, in his well-known Estimate of the Manners. 'Let us,' says that author, 'search the theatre for the remains of a manly taste; and here, apparently at least, it must be acknowledged, we shall find it. A great genius hath arisen to dignify the stage, who, when it was sinking into the lowest insipidity, restored it to the fulness of its ancient splendour, and, with a variety of powers beyond example, established nature, Shakespeare, and himself.'

"A panegyric, of a similar tendency was published afterwards by Dr. Smollett, in his History of Great Britain. That writer was sensible, that

in two of his novels he had misrepresented Mr. Garrick in a strain of malevolence; but he had the candour to declare, that he thought it incumbent on him to make atonement in a work of truth, for the injuries he had done him in a work of fiction. Accordingly, in his review of the liberal arts in the reign of George II. he gave the following passage: 'The exhibitions of the stage were improved to the most exquisite entertainment by the talents and management of Garrick, who greatly surpassed all his predecessors of this, and, perhaps, every other nation, in his genius for acting, in the sweetness and variety of his tones, the irresistible magic of his eye, the fire and vivacity of his action, the elegance of his attitudes, and the whole pathos of expression.'

"Those two characters were most evidently founded in truth. The public saw their great Roscius in the same light, and, therefore, parted with him with the deepest regret. Every face in the theatre was clouded with grief; tears gushed in various parts of the house, and all concurred in one general demonstration of sorrow. The word, farewell, resounded from every quarter, amidst the loudest bursts of applause. The people saw the theatrical fun, which had shone with transcendent lustre, go down beneath the horizon, to rise no more." *Vol. ii. p. 134.*

GARRICK AS AN ACTOR—ANECDOTE OF SHIREFF THE MINIATURE-PAINTER.

"AS an actor it is impossible that Garrick should receive the justice due to his merit from the pen of any writer whatever. To form an adequate idea of such a genius, it is necessary that he should be seen, heard, and felt. Ovid has a short description pointedly applicable to him:

—Non illo jussos solertius alter
Exprimit incessus, vultumque, modumque loquendi."

But when we have said with the Roman poet, that he was graceful in his movements, that his countenance expressed his inmost feelings, and his elocution was consonant to every passion and sentiment, how far will that description go towards a full and just idea of the performer? Colley Cibber

was eminent in his profession, and a close observer of the talents of his contemporaries; but when he attempts to give a portrait of Betterton, he finds himself unequal to the task. He is obliged to stop short, and say, 'Pity it is that the momentary beauties flowing from an harmonious elocution, cannot, like those of poetry, be their own record; that the animated graces of the player can live no longer than the instant breath and motion that presents them, or, at best, can but faintly glimmer through the memory of a few surviving spectators. Could how Betterton spoke be as easily known as what he spoke, then might we see the muse of Shakespeare in her triumph, with all her beauties in her best array, rising into real life, and charming the beholders. But, alas! since all this is so far out of the reach of description, how shall I show you Betterton?'

"Cibber's reasoning is founded on good sense. The same difficulty stands in our way with regard to Garrick. His imagination was so strong and powerful, that he transformed himself into the man he represented, and his sensibility was so quick, that every sentiment took immediate possession of him. Before he uttered a word, the varying passions began to work, and wrought such rapid changes in his features, in his action, his attitudes, and the expression of his eye, that he was, almost every moment, a new man: *Velox mente nova*.

"Cibber, in his account of his favourite actor, does not descend, as much as might be expected, into minute particulars. We have a single attempt of the sort with regard to Betterton in the character of Hamlet. 'On the appearance of the Ghost, his passion never rose beyond an almost breathless astonishment, or an impatience, limited by filial reverence, to inquire into the suspected wrongs that may have raised him from his peaceful tomb. Betterton opened the scene with a pause of mute amazement; then rising slowly to a solemn trembling voice, he made the Ghost equally terrible to the spectators as to himself.' This is an exact description of Garrick. In this situation, the two great actors seem to vie with each other; but when we

are told, that Betterton's person was suitable to his voice (which was more manly than sweet), and that he did not exceed the middle stature, inclining to the corpulent, of a serious and penetrating aspect, his limbs nearer to the athletic than the delicate proportion; after all these particulars we may fairly say, that Garrick gains a complete victory. Like Betterton he did not rise above the middle size, but he was of a delicate frame, his limbs in just proportion; his voice clear and melodious, and his eyes looked the very soul. The passions, and all their operations, were his constant study; their turns and counter-turns, their flux and reflux, and all their various conflicts, were perfectly known to him; he marked the celerity with which they rise and shift; how they often blend, unite, and raise, one mixed emotion, till all within is in a state of insurrection. Many of his great parts in tragedy were so many lectures on the subject. Hutcheson on the passions does not give so clear an analysis. In his great scenes and trying situations, he was a spectacle to be gazed at with wonder and applause. There is an admired passage in Virgil, which has been often applied to Garrick:

—'Æstuat ingens

'Imo in corde pudor, mixtoque infansia luctu,

'Et furia agitatus amor, et conscia virtus.'

The lines are beautiful; they give a lively image of a mind rent and torn by a whirlwind of mixed passions; but still they are no more than a general description. It is to Shakespeare we must look for a picture of his great scholar.

'Is it not monstrous that this player here,

'But in a fiction, in a dream of passion,

'Should force his soul so to his own conceit,

'That, from her working, all his visage wann'd,

'Tears in his eyes, distraction in his aspect,

'A broken voice, and his whole function suiting

'With forms to his conceit!'

All who remember Garrick will recognise him in those admirable lines; but

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to those who never saw him, they will give no adequate idea.

"We shall conclude this article with an anecdote, which we imagine will not be unentertaining. This writer, about three years ago, dined with Mr. Heriot, the proprietor of the True Briton. Mr. Shireff, a painter, well known in the metropolis and at Bath, and brother to Mrs. Heriot, was one of the company. He was announced as a person both deaf and dumb, and he was so in fact; but under the tuition of a skilful master in Scotland, he was so trained up as to understand the English language perfectly well. He was an enthusiastic admirer of Shakespeare, and also of Garrick, with whom he became acquainted. His introduction to Roscius was occasioned in the following manner. About the year 1773, Mr. Shireff, then a young miniature-painter, arrived in London from Edinburgh, and brought with him letters of recommendation to several lovers and encouragers of the arts, and particularly to Caleb Whiteford, Esq. That gentleman was highly pleased with the character of the young painter, and was much struck by such a phenomenon as that of a person deaf and dumb from his cradle, and yet so completely master of the English language, as to be able to read our best poets, and to write in a correct and even elegant style. Mr. Whiteford found, that, when any of Shakespeare's plays was performed, and particularly when Garrick acted, young Shireff was sure to be present, professing that he was the actor whom he best understood. When the play was over, he used to act in dumb show the whole of Garrick's performance, and expressed an earnest wish to be introduced to so fine an imitator of nature. Mr. Whiteford was soon determined to comply with Mr. Shireff's request, and, after turning the matter in his mind, the following expedient appeared to him the surest way to carry the point. He wrote in Shireff's name a short copy of verses in commendation of the actor's extraordinary powers, and conveyed them to Mr. Garrick.

- 'When Britain's Roscius on the stage appears,
- 'Who charms all eyes, and, I am told, all ears,

- 'With ease the various passions I can trace,
- 'Clearly reflected from that wondrous face;
- 'While true conceptions, with just action join'd,
- 'Strongly impress each image on my mind.
- 'What need of sound? when plainly I descry
- 'Th'expressive features, and the speaking eyes;
- 'That eye, whose bright and penetrating ray
- 'Does Shakspeare's meaning to my soul convey.
- 'Blest commentator on great Shakspeare's text!
- 'When Garrick acts, no passage seems perplex.'

These lines were presented to the manager, who, as was natural, read them with astonishment. He had been often celebrated by various writers, but praise from the deaf and dumb was new and extraordinary. He expressed a strong desire to see the youth, who was both painter and poet. Accordingly Mr. Whiteford conducted him to Southampton Street, where he was most cordially received. The scene was curious and interesting. Garrick continued from that time to entertain a friendship for so ingenious an artist, and rendered him every service in his power. The verses he always thought were the production of Mr. Shireff, and on that point he was never undeceived.

"This was the gentleman who dined with the party at Mr. Heriot's. When the company were seated at table, this writer was told, that if he held up his finger, and spelt his words in the air, he might carry on a conversation. He tried the experiment, and found that it answered. Being told that Mr. Shireff was acquainted with Garrick, and admired him as an actor, he put the following questions to him: 'Did you know Garrick?'—'Yes,' in a very inarticulate sound. 'Did you ever see him act?'—'Yes.'—'Did you admire him?'—'Yes.'—'How could that be, when you could not hear him, and, of course, could not understand him?' The answer was unintelligible. Mr. and Mrs. Heriot were used to his manner; at their desire, the question was repeated, and the

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the answer, when explained, astonished the whole company. Mr. Shireff's reply was, *Garrick's face was a language*. To prove that it was so, Mr. Shireff stood up after dinner, and muttering uncouth sounds, went through the part of Richard III.; by his deportment, his action, and the most significant looks, distinguishing every scene and all the various situations of Richard from the beginning to his death in Bosworth field. Hence a judgment may be formed of the actor, who could play before the deaf and dumb, and make them capable. *His face was a language!* Vol. ii. p. 174.

XVI. Damberger's Travels in the Interior of Africa. (Concluded from p. 13.)

THE KING OF HAOUSSA—THE CITY DESCRIBED.

"THE king is absolute, ruling arbitrarily over his dominions. Properly speaking, he has no minister; but his officers execute the office of lords of the council; without the power, however, of deciding in matters of consequence till his consent is obtained.—He is severe in judgment, frequently causing slight offences to be punished by thirty to sixty strokes on the belly with platted thongs. Thieves are usually hung; and the execution is performed in the following manner: a post is fixed in the earth, having two pieces of iron fastened in it, half a foot in length, and projecting from the timber, crooked in front, and barbed like a fish-hook, on which the malefactor is suspended by the bottom of his chin, with his hands and feet bound together. In this state the criminal generally lives from six and thirty to eight and forty hours. This punishment is sometimes mitigated, by hanging the malefactor by the neck on the hooks; in this condition he lives only about two hours.—The military force consists of eighteen or twenty thousand men, all natives, on foot, and six thousand Moors, on horseback. Most of them in war have firelocks and large iron sabres; others carry lances four feet in length. The king always takes the field in person, and commands the army. He is feared by his neighbours, though they have armies far more nu-

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merous. The commerce carried on in this country, and through it, is very considerable; the situation of the territory, and its great fertility, being so extremely favourable. The caravans stop here, to furnish themselves with provisions and forage, and also to enter into agreements for the time when they shall return. The products which the country exports are, manna, dates, and cotton, to Tambuko; ambergris, gums, and civet, into Barbary; and ivory, skins, ostrich-feathers, and whalebone, to the kingdom of Tookahat.

"The city of Haoussa may be reckoned as one of the largest towns in Africa; it being half a day's journey in length, and two German miles over.

"Either the number of the inhabitants, or that of the houses and huts, I was never able to learn. It has nine streets, running from west to east, which are named from the nine first months in the year, namely: 1. the Yoeh, or Flesh Street; 2. Vaahaity, or Fire Street; 3. Teethoyoty, or Lion Street; 4. Saavoo, or Calf Street; 5. Nimyoto, or Eel Street; 6. Nahary, or Camel Street; 7. Terankyato, or Moon Street; 8. Milikotoala, or Dark Street; and, 9. the Sattomially, or Commerce Street.

"Besides the main streets, it has sixteen cross and half streets, which do not intersect the others. They are all paved, but very highly strewn with sand. The houses, as well as the temples, are mostly composed of mortar and stones, and only one story high; but they are not built contiguous to each other; every one having a passage adjoining, as a precaution against the spreading of the flames in cases of fire. I was told that, in this town alone, there are two hundred and fifty temples.

"Here are four market-places: 1. the man-market, or slave-market; 2. the caravan-market, where the travelling merchants sell their wares; 3. the flesh, or cattle-market; and, 4. the parade. The palace stands on the south side, and is reputed to be strong, it being surrounded by two walls and a deep ditch. In the town and the palace are usually three thousand men as a garrison. Here are manufacturers and artificers, particularly employed in making coarse linen and pottery ware, which are conveyed into other countries by the caravans. It is computed that here are about three hundred merchants who trade to a great

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extent,

extent, and have partly their own caravans, to fetch goods and transport them to various distances: besides, as every stranger has liberty to traffic here, Jews at certain times come hither in considerable numbers, to get silver, gold, ivory, colours, and other commodities, by bartering against them iron-wire, swords, powder, ball, looking-glasses, and the like. In the suburbs are seen better and handsomer houses than in the town itself, though they are only inhabited by countrymen, smiths, and potters. At the distance of little more than a league westwards from the town, a brook arises, where a bath is constructed for the king and his principal officers. It is built of straw and palm-leaves, and planted round with cotton-trees. The water comes quite hot out of the earth, and is said to throw up with it a great deal of gold-sand. For the truth of this report, however, I can by no means vouch, as I never was admitted within the bathing-hut, it being prohibited, under penalty of death, to enter it without the king's permission: nevertheless, I observed thus much, that the king barter away gold-sand, which is obtained in his own country, and not procured elsewhere.

"Annually, in the month of September, which is the pleasantest season of the year, the king goes to encamp at Boofu, where he employs himself in exercising a part of his troops in arms."

Vol. ii. p. 190.

DESCRIPTION OF MAROCCO—THE EMPEROR.

"THE country of Marocco is one of the most charming and fertile on the face of the earth, though not so well cultivated as it would be by a different race of inhabitants. The tyranny of the emperor over his wretched subjects, depresses their spirits and plunges them in sloth. If any of them be industrious in benefiting by the fertility of the soil, they are obliged to pay enormous tributes; and, if the harvest turn out ever so good, the husbandman can scarcely retain so much of the produce as is sufficient for the support of his existence, as either the emperor himself, or the rapacious and thievish governors, his substitutes, take all to themselves, using violence when they cannot attain their ends by artifice and fraud.

"The emperor now reigning is said to be far less cruel than his predecessor; and yet seldom a day passes that he does not cause several wretches to be executed, or put them to death with his own hand. The people bear the severities of this barbarian monster with the greatest patience, esteeming themselves happy to hear that they are to be killed by his own hand, looking upon him as the descendant of their great Prophet, and therefore regarding what he does as the dispensation of Heaven. No people are to be found in all Africa, even in its most savage and unfrequented regions, more simple and stupid than the inhabitants of this country.—Every male above fifteen years of age being a soldier, the emperor can always, in a week's time, bring together an army of two hundred thousand men: though he cannot effect much with all this force; because, excepting the Moors, they are, for the most part, an undisciplined rabble.—The imperial life-guards consist of six hundred Moors of cavalry, enjoying an unbounded license, and consequently practising every species of rapine and extortion. The governors in the capitals, and the sub-governors in the other towns, exercise the sovereign authority within their districts, ruling with the most absolute authority; the emperor, let them be ever so intemperate and cruel towards the subjects, giving himself but little concern about them. If a subject conceal any part of his effects, or of the fruits of his ground, and inquiry be made after it in the name of the emperor, or of a governor, if he deny that he knows any thing of it, on its being detected, he forfeits both his life and the whole of his property; nay, he must even esteem it a signal act of favour, if his sentence be mitigated to that of being bound up in iron for life, and his family banished the country. The priests, who are extremely numerous, are the proper instruments in the performance of these acts of iniquity, of horror and murder; usually running about with the Koran, as if they were diligently reading it, encouraging the people to prayer, and to observe the precepts of the Koran, going thrice a day to the mosques, bawling there to God, as if they wanted to wake him from a profound sleep; imploring the Prophet that he will grant a long reign to the emperor

emperor his son, and the like; while their aim is, certainly, not the advancement of wisdom and virtue, but the promotion of their own importance and respect, and of an unlimited dominion over the minds of men. Only then they pray with fervent zeal when they invoke God and the Prophet to exterminate infidels, and destroy heretics. They are employed daily, indeed, for some hours, in giving lessons to youth; but what they teach only tends to suppress in their tender minds the voice of reason, and to inspire them, in its stead, with a servile fear of the Prophet, and an implicit reverence for them as his servants.

"Polygamy is in general practice here; the Moors, in particular, taking not unfrequently four, five, or six wives, and often getting rid of them with equal facility. No inquisition is taken when the wife of a Moor happens suddenly to die; nay, if any one offer to bring testimony that she has been murdered, he is immediately sent away with reproof for his forwardness. If a Moor attach himself to the daughter of a mechanic, she must be given up to him, if the whole family would avoid the hazard of having their houses plundered, or some individual of it secretly made away with.

"The women are kept in a very sequestered state, living in rooms apart from the rest. Among the primary class of inhabitants, comprehending merchants, priests, officers, and the like, liberal and honest men are occasionally found; the greater part, however, are people of base and fordid minds; but the priests and officers are of a peculiarly wicked stamp. The merchant is obliged to give the tenth of the articles of his trade, in kind, as a tribute to the emperor or his viceroys; but, besides this, he must likewise, every week, pay capitation-tax, war-tax, security-money*, &c. Over and above these ordinary taxes, voluntary contributions, or free gifts, are demanded in behalf of the emperor; at the same time, every one must furnish a stated sum for the maintenance of the priests. The Jews are not allowed to traffic, or to possess any property, but are obliged to perform the meanest offices, and submit to the

harsh treatment, like the common slaves.

"The town of Azafia, not larger than the fourth part of the town of Marocco, is handsomely built, and carries on a considerable commerce, which is increasing from year to year. It is computed that between eighty and ninety foreign ships with mercantile goods arrive in the roadstead of this place annually." *Vol. ii. p. 271.*

XVII. *Asiatic Researches*; or, Transactions of the Society, instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia. Vol. VI. 4to. pp. 600. 1l. 5s. 8vo. pp. 60. 12s. 6d. *Sewell, Debrett.*

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INHABITANTS OF THE POGGY ISLANDS.

“THE inhabitants of Pogy Islands are but few; they are divided into small tribes, each tribe occupying a small river, and living in one village. On the northern Pogy are seven villages, of which Cockup is the chief; on the southern Pogy are five. The whole number of people on the two islands amounts, by the best accounts I could procure, only to one thousand four hundred; the inland parts of the islands are uninhabited. Porah or Fortune Island is inhabited by the same race of people, and is said to contain as many inhabitants as the two Poggys. When we consider the mildness of the climate, the ease with which the inhabitants procure wholesome nutritive food, and the little restraint laid on the communication between the sexes, this paucity of inhabitants seems to indicate that the period when the residence in these islands commenced, cannot be very remote. Their houses are built of bamboos and raised on posts; the

under part is occupied by poultry and hogs, and, as may be supposed, much filth is collected there. The whole of their clothing consists of a piece of coarse cloth, made of the bark of a tree, worn round the waist, and brought across between the thighs; they wear beads and other ornaments about the neck, of which a small green bead is the most esteemed. Though cocoa-nut trees are in such plenty, they have not the use of oil; and their hair, which is black, and might grow long and graceful, is, for want of it, and the use of combs, in general matted and plentifully supplied with vermin, which they pick out and eat; a filthy custom; but very common among savage people. They have a method of filing or grinding their teeth to a point, which is also in use on Sumatra.

“Their stature seldom exceeds five feet and a half, and many among them fall short of this: some of them are extremely well made, with fine-turned limbs and expressive countenances: their colour is like that of the Malays, a light brown or copper colour. The custom of tattooing or imprinting figures on the skin is general among them, of which I shall say more presently.

“The principal article of their food is fago, which is found in plenty on these islands. The tree, when ripe, is cut down, and the pith, which forms the fago, taken out, and the meal part separated from the fibrous, by maceration and treading it in a large trough continually supplied with fresh water: the meal subsides and is kept in bags made of a kind of rush; and in this state it may be preserved for a considerable time. When they take it from their store for immediate use, some further preparation of washing is necessary; but they do not granulate it. One tree will sometimes yield two hundred pounds of fago: when they cook it, it is put into the hollow joints of a thin bamboo, and roasted over the fire.

“Besides this article, they have a variety of nourishing plants, such as the yam, the sweet potatoe, the plantain, &c. Their animal food consists of fowls, hogs, and fish; shell-fish they eat raw. The use of betel, so common in the East, is unknown to them, and I observed in many, marks of the fever in their mouths.

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"Their arms consist of a bow and arrows. The bow is made of the neebong tree, a species of palm, which, when of proper age, is very strong and elastic; the strings are formed of the entrails of some animal; the arrow is made of a small bamboo or other light wood, headed with brads, or with another piece of wood fixed to the end of the shaft and cut to a point: these arrows, we are told, are sometimes poisoned. Though strangers to the use of feathers to steady the flight of the arrow, they nevertheless discharge it from the bow with much strength and skill. With a mongrel breed of dogs, probably procured originally from Sumatra, they rouse the deer in the woods, which they sometimes kill with their arrows; they also kill monkeys by the same means, and eat their flesh. We observed a few among them who were in possession of *creeses* or Malay daggers.

"Their knowledge of metals is entirely derived from their communication with the inhabitants of Sumatra. They are still strangers to the use of coin of any kind, and a metal coat-button would be of equal value in their esteem with a piece of gold or silver coin, either of which would immediately be hung about the neck as an ornament. A sort of iron hatchet or hand-bill, called *parang*, is in much esteem with them, and serves as a standard for the value of various commodities, such as cocoa-nuts, coolit coys, poultry, &c.

"We were informed that the different tribes of *Orang Mantaswee* who inhabit the Pogy Islands never war with each other; to which account we could readily give credit from the mildness of their disposition. Indeed, the friendly footing upon which they appeared to live one with another was a circumstance too striking to escape our notice; during our whole stay with them, and while distributing various presents among them, we never heard a single dispute, nor observed one angry gesture. They however informed us that a feud has long subsisted between the inhabitants of the Pogy Islands, and those of some island to the northward, whom they called Sybee. Against these people they sometimes undertake expeditions in their war canoes; but it did not appear that they had engaged in any undertaking of this kind lately. Mr.

Best measured one of these war canoes, which was preserved with great care under a shed; the floor of it was twenty-five feet in length, the prow projected twenty-two feet, and the stern eighteen, making the whole length sixty-five feet; the greatest breadth was five feet, and the depth three feet eight inches. For navigating in their rivers and the straits of See Cockup, where the sea is as smooth as glass, they use a small canoe, made from a single tree, constructed with great neatness; and the women and young children are extremely expert in the use of the paddle.

"The religion of this people, if it can be said they have any, may truly be called the religion of nature. A belief of the existence of some powers more than human cannot fail to be excited among the most uncultivated of mankind, from the observations of various striking natural phenomena, such as the diurnal revolution of the sun and moon; thunder and lightning; earthquakes, &c. &c.; nor will there ever be wanting among them some of superior talents and cunning who will acquire an influence over weak minds, by assuming to themselves an interest with, or a power of controlling those super-human agents: and such notions constitute the religion of the inhabitants of the Poggys. Sometimes a fowl and sometimes a hog is sacrificed to avert sickness; to appease the wrath of the offended power, or to render it propitious to some projected enterprise: and Mr. Best was informed that omens of good or ill fortune were drawn from certain appearances in the entrails of the victim. But they have no form of religious worship, nor do they appear to have the most distant idea of a future state of rewards and punishments.—They do not practise circumcision.

"The mode of disposing of their dead bears a resemblance to that of the Otaheitans. Very shortly after death the corpse is carried to a certain place appropriated for the purpose, where it is deposited on a sort of stage, called in their language *rati aki*; it is dressed with a few beads or such ornaments as the person was accustomed to wear in his lifetime; and after strewing a few leaves over it, the attendants leave the ground, and proceed to the plantation of the deceased, where they fell a few trees of his planting, and return

turn to their homes. The corpse is left to rot, and the bones fall to the ground.

"Among a people whose manners are so simple, whose wants are so easily supplied, and whose possessions are so circumscribed, we are not to look for any complex system of jurisprudence: indeed their code of laws may be comprised in a few lines.

"Their chiefs are but little distinguished from the community, either by authority or by property, their pre-eminence being chiefly displayed at public entertainments, of which they do the honours. They have no judicial powers; all disputes are settled, and crimes adjudged, by a meeting of the whole village.

"Inheritance is by male descent; the house or plantation, the weapons and tools of the father, pass to his male children. Theft, when to a considerable amount, and the criminal is incapable of making restitution, is liable to be punished by death.

"Murder is punishable by retaliation; the murderer is delivered to the relations of the deceased, who may put him to death. I was however informed these crimes are very rare.

"In marriages, the matter is settled between the parents of the young persons; and when agreed upon, the young man goes to the house of the bride, and takes her home: on this occasion a hog is generally killed, and a feast made. Polygamy is not allowed.

"In cases of adultery, where the wife is the offender, the injured husband has a right to seize the effects of the paramour, and sometimes punishes his wife by cutting off her hair. When the husband offends, the wife has a right to quit him, and to return to her parent's house; but in this state of separation she is not allowed to marry another; however, in both these cases, the matter is generally made up, and the parties reconciled; and we are informed that instances of their occurrence were very unfrequent. Simple fornication between unmarried persons is neither a crime nor a disgrace; and a young woman is rather liked the better, and more desired in marriage, for having borne a child; sometimes they have two or three, when, upon a marriage taking place, the children are left with the parents of their mother.

The state of slavery is unknown to these people.

"The custom of tattooing is general throughout these islands. They call it in their language *teeter*. They begin to imprint these marks on boys of seven years of age, but they only trace at first a few outlines. As they advance in years, and go to war, they fill up the marks, the right to which depends on having killed an enemy. Such is the account they gave us, and it is probable enough that this custom may originally have been intended as a mark of military distinction; but such original intention cannot at present have place, as the marks are common to every individual, and wars scarce occur once in a generation. The figures imprinted are the same throughout, or the variation, if any, is very trifling, excepting that, in some of the young men, the outline only of the broad mark on the breast is traced, but this is filled up as they grow older. The women have a star imprinted on each shoulder, and generally some small marks on the back of the hands. These marks are imprinted with a pointed instrument, consisting of a brass wire fixed perpendicularly into a piece of stick, about eight inches in length; this piece is struck with another small long stick with repeated light strokes. The pigment used for this purpose is made of the smoke collected from a species of resin, which is mixed with water; the operator takes a stem of dried grass, or a fine piece of stick, and dipping the end in the pigment, traces on the skin the outline of the figure, with great steadiness and dexterity; then, dipping the brass point in the same composition, he with very quick and light strokes drives it into the skin, tracing the outline before drawn, which leaves an indelible mark. Mr. Best submitted to the operation on his leg, and found it attended with some pain.

"Such are the customs and manners of the inhabitants of the Pogy Islands, which lie within sight of Sumatra.—The many particulars in which they differ from any set of inhabitants of the latter island, put it, in my opinion, beyond a doubt that they are of a different origin, but from whence they came it may not be easy, and probably will not be thought of importance,

to trace. They have no clear tradition to assist in such an inquiry. When Mr. Best was at their village, on asking from whence they originally came, they told him from the sun, which he understood as signifying from the eastward." P. 82.

ON THE MEDICINE, LITERATURE, &c.
OF THE BURMAS.

"THE Burmas have among them many histories, containing an account of the lives and actions performed by the different families of their princes. These histories are, I am told, very fabulous; every action being attended by omens and prodigies. Still however they may throw some light on a part of the world hitherto so little known; and I am hopeful soon to be able to lay before the learned, a translation of the Maha-raja Wayn-gye, the most celebrated historical work of the Burmas. These people have also translated histories of the Chinese and Siamese, and the kingdoms of Kathee, Ko-thanpyee, Pagoo, Saymmay, and Laynzayn. Of all these I saw copies, and several of them I procured for Sir John Murray.

"On medicine the Burmas have several books. They divide diseases into ninety-six genera, and of these several are subdivided into many species.—Their books contain descriptions of all the ninety-six diseases, with various recipes for their cure. Of the animal kingdom, mummy is a favourite medicine. The Burmas are acquainted with the use of mercury in the cure of the venereal disease; but their manner of giving it is neither certain nor safe. They make a candle of cinnabar and some other materials, and setting fire to it, the patient inhales the fumes with his nostrils. The patient is however rarely able to persevere long in this course, as it always produces a want of appetite, and extreme languor. The greater part however of the Burma remedies are taken from the vegetable kingdom, especially of the aromatic kind, nutmegs being one of their most favourite medicines. They are well acquainted with the plants of their country, and for a vast number have appropriate names. On the whole, however, the practice of their physicians is almost entirely empirical; and almost every one has, or pretends to have, a number of private recipes, on

which the success of his practice chiefly depends. I was often tempted by wonderful stories concerning the efficacy of these nostrums, in order to induce me to purchase the secret, which some of them pretended to have been handed down from their fathers for several generations. Indeed I found a great spirit of illiberality among my brethren of trade; nor were they exempt from imposing on the weakness of the sick, by a pretension to supernatural powers. In spite however of all these indirect means of influence, I found them deservedly not in possession of an honourable estimation among their countrymen. One curious custom relating to the Burma physicians may be mentioned. If a young woman is dangerously ill, the doctor and her parents frequently enter into an agreement, the doctor undertaking to cure her. If she lives, the doctor takes her as his property; but if she dies, he pays her value to the parents: for in the Burma dominions, no parent parts with his daughter, whether to be a wife, or to be a concubine, without a valuable consideration. I do not know whether the doctor is entitled to sell the girl again, or if he must retain her in his family; but the number of fine young women, which I saw in the house of a doctor at Myeda, makes me think the practice to be very common.

"In surgery, the skill of the Burmas, I believe, goes no farther than dressing wounds, and setting bones. Of late indeed they have introduced from Arakan the art of inoculation for the small-pox. This practice has however not become general, as a very great proportion of the people's faces are pitted by that disease.

"On law, the Burmas have many treatises; both containing the laws of Menu, and copious commentaries on these. Whether they still have any copies of the law, as originally imported from Ceylon, I know not: but I was told, that the Damathat-gye, or code in common use, has suffered several alterations, and additions, made by the decrees of various princes.

"I heard of no poetry, which the Burmas possess, except songs. Of these they have a great number on a variety of subjects, and are fond of quoting them on many occasions.—Their music, both vocal and instrumental,

mental, appeared to me very bad. Some of their musical instruments are, indeed, not so barbarously noisy, as those of the Hindus and Chinese; but the airs, which the Burmas performed on them, I could not at all comprehend. On the contrary, many of the Hindu and Chinese airs seem to me not at all unpleasant: but I must confess, that I am entirely unskilled and rude in the science of music.

"The Burmas have dramatic entertainments, used at all festivals, and well described by M. de la Loubere, in his account of Siam. The performers, indeed, which we saw, were all Siamese. Although these entertainments, like the Italian opera, consist of music, dancing, and action, with a dialogue in recitative; yet we understood, that no part but the songs was previously composed. The subject is generally taken from some of the legends of their heroes, especially of Rama; and the several parts, songs, and actions, being assigned to the different performers, the recitative part or dialogue is left to each actor's ingenuity. If, from the effects on the audience, we might judge of the merit of the performance, it must be very considerable; as some of the performers had the art of keeping the multitude in a roar. I often, however, suspected that the audience were not difficult to please: for I frequently observed the Myoowun of Hayntha-wade (the man of high rank whom we most frequently saw) thrown into immoderate laughter by the most childish contrivances. These eastern nations are indeed a lively, merry people; and, like the former French, dance, laugh, and sing in the midst of oppression and misfortune.

"The original of most of the Burma books on law and religion is in the Pali or Pale language; which undoubtedly is radically the same with the Sanscrit. I was assured at Amarapura, that the Pali of Siam and Pegu differed considerably from that of the Burmas; and an intelligent native of Tavay, who had been at Cingala or Candy, the present capital of Ceylon, and at the ruins of Anuradapura, the former capital, assured me, that the Pali of that island was considerably different from that of Ava.

"In many inscriptions, and in books

of ceremony, such as the Kammua, the Pali language is written in a square character, somewhat resembling the Bengal Sanscrit, and called Magata. Of this a specimen may be seen in the description of the Boregian museum, by Paulinus. But in general it is written in a round character, nearly resembling the Burma letters. Of this kind is the specimen given by the accurate M. de la Loubere, and which some persons have rashly conceived to be the Burma. There is no doubt, however, that all the different characters of India, both on the west and on the east of the Ganges, have been derived from a common source: and the Burma writing, of the whole, appears to be the most distinct and beautiful.

"In their more elegant books, the Burmas write on sheets of ivory, on very fine white palmira leaves. The ivory is stained black, and the margins are ornamented with gilding, while the characters are enamelled or gilded. On the palmira leaves the characters are in general black enamel; and the ends of the leaves, and margins, are painted with flowers in various bright colours. In their more common books, the Burmas with an iron style engrave their writing on palmira leaves. A hole, through both ends of each leaf, serves to connect the whole into a volume by means of two strings, which also pass through the two wooden boards, that serve for binding. In the finer binding of these kind of books the boards are lacquered, the edges of the leaves cut smooth and gilded, and the title is written on the upper board: the two cords are by a knot or jewel secured at a little distance from the boards, so as to prevent the book from falling to pieces, but sufficiently distant to admit of the upper leaves being turned back, while the lower ones are read. The more elegant books are in general wrapped up in silk cloth, and bound round by a garter, in which the Burmas have the art to weave the title of the book.

"As there are but few of the Burmas who do not read and write, almost every man carries with him a *para-waik**, in which he keeps his accounts, copies songs, till he can repeat them from memory, and takes memorandums of any thing curious. It is on

* "I do not know but that this ought to be written *Paruah*."

these

these parawaiks that the zares or writers in all courts, and public offices, take down the proceedings and orders of the superior officers: from thence copying such parts as are necessary, into books of a more durable and elegant nature. The parawaik is made of one sheet of thick and strong paper blackened over. A good one may be made about eight feet long, and eighteen inches wide. It is folded up somewhat like a fan, or thus *a b*, each fold or page being about six inches, and in length the whole breadth of the sheet. Thence, wherever the book is opened, whichever side is uppermost, no part of it can be rubbed, but the two outer pages, *a, b*; and it only occupies a table one foot in width by eighteen inches long. The Burmas write on the parawaik with a pencil of steatites. When in haste, the zares use many contractions, and write with wonderful quickness. I have seen them keep up with an officer dictating, and not speaking very slow. But when they take pains, the characters written on the parawaik are remarkably neat. Indeed this nation, like the Chinese, pique themselves much on writing an elegant and distinct character. When that which has been written on a parawaik, becomes no longer useful, the pages are rubbed over with charcoal, and the leaves of a species of dolichos: they are then clean, as if new, and equally fit for the pencil.

"Every convent has a collection of books; several of which are pretty considerable. The most common copies are indeed the Rahans, who prepare books both for their convents, and for presents to their lay benefactors. These books are kept in chests, much ornamented with gilding, and bits of looking-glass, fastened on with lacquer, in the shape of flowers. At Amarapura we were shown a part of the royal library. This is a brick building, surrounded by enclosed courts, and temples, which occupy a delightful situation, in the N. W. angle of the city. Near it is a small, but most elegant Kialing. To this, at times, the monarch retires; and we were shown the gilded couch on which he reposes, while the Zarado reads to him, and instructs him in the duties of religion. The library itself is neither a convenient nor handsome building. The gallery, into which we entered,

contained about a hundred chests, gilded on the sides, and lacquered above, with the general title of their contents written in golden letters. The chests were large, and, if full, must have contained many thousand volumes. As we saw only a part, I presume that the king's collection is very extensive. He is, indeed, said to be a very intelligent and learned prince. He was very desirous of obtaining some Brahmens more learned than those he had, to instruct him in astronomy: and he had caused the Institutes of Menu to be translated from the English of Sir William Jones. He must, therefore, have heard of what is pursued among the Europeans, in at least Oriental literature: and it is to be hoped, that some more useful books may attract his notice: books which might tend to improve the people, and give them more enlightened notions of politics, of the arts, and of science. Hitherto, I suspect, the laws, or religion, of the Burmas have contributed little to the happiness of the people; but fortunately they have not, like those of the Brahmens, placed any insurmountable obstacles in the way of national improvement." P. 302.

COLOSSAL STATUES ON MOUNT CAUCASUS.

"BUT what never fails to attract the notice of travellers, are two colossal statues, which are seen at a great distance. They are erect, and adhere to the mountain, from which they were cut out. They are in a sort of niches, the depth of which is equal to the thickness of the statues. It is said, in the Ayeen-Akberry, that the largest is eighty ells high, and the other only fifty. These dimensions are greatly exaggerated, according to the opinion of all the travellers I have seen, and the disproportion is not so great between the two. According to the author of the Pharangh-Jehanghiri, cited by Th. Hyde (p. 132), they are said to be only fifty cubits high; which appears to be the true dimensions. At some distance from these two statues, is another of a smaller size, being about fifteen cubits high. Natives and Persian authors, who have mentioned them, agree neither about the sex nor their names. The few Hindus, who live in these countries, say, that they

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represent

represent Bhîm and his consort: the followers of Buddha; that they are the statues of Shahâma, and his disciple Sâlsâla. The Mussulmans insist, that they are the statues of Key-Umursh and his consort, that is to say, Adam and Eve; and that the third is intended for Seish or Seth their son; whose tomb, or at least the place where it stood formerly, is shown near Bâhlac. This is in some measure confirmed by the author of the Pharangh-Jehanghiri, who says, that these statues existed in the time of Noah; though he gives them different names, and supposes the third to represent an old woman, called Nefir, more generally represented with the countenance of a vulture. These statues are so much defaced, through the injury of all-devouring time, and the intolerant zeal of the Mussulmans, that I believe it is difficult to ascertain their sex. Travellers do, however, agree that one of them at least is a beardless youth; some more particularly insist that the swelling of the breasts is remarkably obvious, and that both look towards the east, so that, when the sun rises, they seem to smile, but look gloomy in the evening. Their dress, as described to me, is much the same with that of the two figures, half buried at Tuât-Rustum near Istacur in Persia; with this difference, that the female figure has no head-dress; but the male has such a tiara as is worn by the supposed female figure at Tuât-Rustum.

"These statues were visited, at least ten or twelve different times, by a famous traveller, called Méyan-Afod-Shah, who is a man highly respected, both on account of his descent from Mohammed, and his personal character. He is well-informed, in affluent circumstances, through the piety of the faithful, and keeps company with the princes of the country and persons of the first rank. He informed me lately, that these two statues are in two different niches, and about forty paces distant from each other. That the drapery is covered with embroidery and figured work; which formerly was painted of different colours; traces of which are still visible. The one seems to have been painted of a red colour; and the other, either retains the original colour of the stone, or was painted gray. That one certainly represents a female, from the beauty and smooth-

ness of her features, and the swelling of her breasts; the head, being so much elevated, is secure from insult below, and is also protected from the weather by the projection above. The statue of their supposed son is nearly half a mile distant, and about twenty feet high. One of the legs of the male figure is much broken: for the Mussulmans never march that way with cannon without firing two or three shots at them: but from their want of skill, they seldom do much mischief. Aurangzebe, it is said, in his expedition to Bâhlac, in the year 1646, passed that way, and ordered, as usual, a few shots to be fired; one of them took place, and almost broke its leg, which bled copiously. This, and some frightful dreams, made him desist; and the clotted blood, it is said, adheres to the wound, to this day. The miracle is equally believed by the Hindus and Mussulmans: the former attribute it to the superior power of the Deity; and the latter to witchcraft. According to Dr. Hyde, one of these statues is called Surkh-But, or the red idol; the other Khink-But, or the gray idol. As to their being hollow, I believe it is an idle tale: at least the travellers I have consulted, knew nothing of it. Between the legs of the male figure is a door leading into a most spacious temple, the dimensions of which they could not describe otherwise than by saying, that it could easily hold the camp equipage and baggage of Zeman-Shah, and of his whole army. It is remarkable only for its extraordinary dimensions: it is dark and gloomy; and there are a few niches, with the remains of some figures in *alto-relievo*. At the entrance are stationed a few wretched Banyans, who sell provision to travellers. The greatest part of the Samajés in Tâgâvi Bâmiyan are still inhabited by Mussulmans, who live promiscuously with their cattle. I have been informed, that there are no other statues than these three; but, from the numerous fragments, which are seen through the Tâgâvis, there must have been several hundreds of them. They show to this day the Samach'h, in which the famous Vyâsa composed the Vêdas; and others, where divers holy men gave themselves up to meditation, and the contemplation of the Supreme Being." P. 464.

MUSULMANS

MUSULMANS' ACCOUNT OF ALEXANDER'S CROSSING THE INDUS.

"I CANNOT help taking notice of a curious observation made by a learned Brahmen, that whosoever prohibited the crossing of the Attock, meant only that nobody making use of the usual modes known at that time, should presume to cross it: but if he could leap over it, or cross it in a balloon, or alstride a wild goose, or any other bird, which may be effected through magic, there could be no harm whatever. This strange idea brought to my recollection a whimsical story of the Musulmans who inhabited the country of Sind or Tata: they fancy Alexander by magical art conveyed his whole army over the Indus, every man of his riding alstride a wild goose. Alexander was pretty successful in India: they conceive that this would not have been the case if he had crossed the Indus either in boats or by swimming; and the most obvious method he could adopt, in their opinion, was to convey his soldiers in the above manner."—P. 537.

XVIII. *The Life and Exploits of the ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote de la Mancha*. Translated from the original Spanish of MIGUEL DE CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, by CHARLES JARVIS, Esq. Now carefully revised and corrected: with a new Translation of the Spanish Poetry. To which is prefixed, a copious and new Life of Cervantes; including a Critique on the Quixote; also a chronological Plan of the Work. Embellished with new Engravings, and a Map of Part of Spain. 4 vols. 8vo. pp. 1614. 2l. 2s. Royal Paper 3l. 16s. Proof Plates 5l. 5s. Miller.

EXTRACTS FROM THE PREFACE.

"IN publishing a new edition of Don Quixote, little, at least in this place, need be said of the excellence of the work itself. Its peculiar merits will be discussed hereafter. Time, however, has put his mark upon it, and that is no bad criterion, by which to judge: more than two centuries

have elapsed, and Don Quixote is still universally read.

"The translation of Jarvis has been chosen, as being the best hitherto written. It has been now carefully revised, and such errors, as were apparent, corrected. The poetry of every former edition has been, in many points, very defective, particularly in respect to fidelity of translation. That, which accompanies the present edition, is entirely new; and, if its poetic merit be thought inferior to any former, its general conformity to the original will be found more correct.

"The title of this work, as given by Jarvis, is certainly not that of Cervantes; but as his translation has been kept, it was thought right not to alter it. In Spanish it simply is, *El ingenioso Hidalgo Don Quixote de la Mancha*, *The ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote de la Mancha*. Such, at least, is the opinion of the Spanish Academy, who find fault with some editions for prefixing *Vida y Hechos*, *The Life and Events*; a title, they say, as improper, as if the Odyssey of Homer was called *The Life and Events of the prudent Ulysses*. They then notice the incorrectness of the quarto edition of 1738 by Tonson, from which it is probable Jarvis took his title.

"The division of the chapters has been a little altered according to the best Spanish edition; namely, that published at Madrid in 1780 at the expense of the king, and under the inspection of the Spanish Academy. Cervantes certainly divided the first part into books, but from having discontinued it in the second, it is evident he disapproved of that mode; so that, had he published a second edition of the whole, he would probably have altered the first part. Such, however, is the reasoning of the Spanish Academy, which has induced the editor to adopt that arrangement.

"The Life of Cervantes, prefixed to this edition, is founded upon that published at Madrid. It would be improper to call it a translation, because a faithful translation would occupy four or five times the space; and yet perhaps it has little other merit: every thing, however, has been taken and condensed, that was thought at all interesting, and such new matter added, as occurred in the perusal of other works. The Spanish Life is written by Don Vincente de los Rios, member

of the Spanish Academy, and in Spain it is reckoned a work of great celebrity." *Vol. i. p. iii.*

EXTRACTS FROM THE LIFE.

"THE lives of literary men are not often fertile in incidents; such at least as are likely to be remembered long after they happened. Passing their time within the walls of their own study, free from the bustle of the world, what happens to them is often unimportant beyond the circumference of their own circle. When, therefore, the long space of more than two hundred years has elapsed since he, of whom our inquiry is made, lived, our information must, in general, be both scanty and uncertain. In the present instance, however, there are two circumstances, which will render this account more varied; Cervantes was a soldier, and he was a captive: not merely a prisoner of war to an European nation, but a slave to the Moors.

"Amongst the learned and ingenious men of Spain, none deserve greater praise than our author. This illustrious writer, who would have graced a more enlightened age, and whose valour, talents, and virtue entitled him to every reward, passed his life in poverty and neglect. He was even despised by his own nation, whose peaceful days he had dignified by his works, and in whose victories he shed his blood. The singular and unfortunate destiny of Cervantes was such, that his cotemporaries persecuted him while living, and were equally unjust to his memory. They even neglected to publish any account of his life, while the events of it were recent, and they might have executed it with ease and fidelity. Hence the principal actions of it are involved in the confusion and obscurity of those times: hence the difficulty of the present attempt.

"Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra was the son of Rodrigo Cervantes by Donna Leonora de Cortinas, his wife: he was born at Alcalá de Henares on the 9th of October 1547. The place, however, of his birth, like that of Homer's, has been questioned.

"His parents carried him very early to Madrid, where he was educated

under the care of the learned professor, Juan Lopez." *Vol. i. p. xiv.*

"Our author continued at the school, or rather under the tuition, of Juan Lopez, till the year 1568, when he was twenty-one years of age, and was much beloved by him: he considered him as the best and most forward of his pupils; and in a description of the funeral of Queen Donna Isabel de la Paz, published by him in that year, he inserted a small poem, by Cervantes, on her death, whom he calls his dear and beloved disciple: and also an elegy, in the name of the whole school, which was dedicated to Cardinal Don Diego de Espinosa. It is most probable, that the first of these poems was a school exercise in Latin, as the elegy is particularly mentioned to have been composed in the *vulgar tongue*.

"This first effort of Cervantes did not possess much merit: for though poetry was the pursuit of which he was most fond, he was by no means warmed with the true poetic fire, and his prose works consequently are by far the most excellent. Men are too often guilty of the folly of neglecting to cultivate the talents they possess, and endeavour to shine in those they have no pretensions to: at least they are not satisfied within their proper sphere, but are ambitious of gaining credit in those subjects to which the taste of their age most inclines. The species of writing most esteemed in those days were romances, and amatory poems, in which the authors concealed themselves and their mistresses under some fictitious or allegorical name. Though the Spanish nation at that period produced men who were skilful in various arts and sciences, it abounded also with innumerable poets and romance-writers; and Cervantes himself, hurried away by the prevailing taste, or fascinated at that early age by the graces of poetry, united all his efforts in compositions of this nature, without paying the least attention to the cultivation of that singular genius for prose, in which his invention and wit afterwards rendered him so famous. Besides the verses published by Juan Lopez, he composed a great number of romances, sonnets, and poems of various sorts; amongst which was the '*Filena*,' a species of the pastoral. Cervantes himself owns, in his

'Viage

'Viage del Parnaso,' that all these were his, and they were most likely the first productions of his pen, by which he acquired the title of a poet, even before his captivity.

"Hence arose the distress and poverty in which our author was afterwards involved. An early and violent inclination for books of amusement and poetry, particularly the latter, generally absorbs all the energies of the mind. And a taste for this kind of literature, though noble, disinterested, and even useful to society, is, for this very reason, the more flattering, seductive, and pernicious to the individual interest of a literary man; nay more so than some other passions much more common, although less decorous.

"Such was the taste of Cervantes. His passion for poetry absorbed him to that degree, that he had neither the power, nor even the wish, of seeking a remedy for that poverty, in which he was involved from his cradle. He left his means of living to chance, and dedicated himself to the Muses. His application was so great, that he read even the ballads that were hung up in the streets and alleys; and he thus acquired that great degree of information which is apparent in all his writings, particularly in his 'Canto de Caliope,' in the account of Don Quixote's library, and in the 'Viage del Parnaso.' The knowledge he thus obtained was indeed singular, but on this very account so injurious to our author; who, to obtain it, left his true genius uncultivated, and employed the most useful years of his life, which should have been dedicated to the pursuit of some lucrative profession.

"The veil was at length drawn from before his eyes, and he determined to leave Spain. The vexation of finding himself grown up without any means of living according to his rank, added to a secret regret and disgust that his works did not obtain an approbation equal to his wishes, were sufficient motives to a young man of such talents to induce him to leave his country through the hopes of improving his fortune. In 1569 he went to Italy with this idea, and first obtained an establishment at Rome as valet, or rather chamberlain, to Cardinal Julio Aquaviva. He remained there till the war, which broke out against the Turks

in 1570, presented him with the means of engaging in a more noble profession, and one better adapted to his birth and enterprising mind.

"The island of Cyprus gave rise to the war. The Sultan Selim, wishing to take it from the Venetians, sent a large army to attack it. The latter sought the aid of almost every Christian prince, especially of Pius V. who appointed Marco Antonio Colona, Duke of Palliano, commander in chief of both army and navy. Cervantes instantly enlisted under him, and served in the campaign which began towards the end of 1570 with the relief of Cyprus, and an attempt to raise the siege of Nicosia. The dissensions of the different generals, and consequent inactivity of the army, did not, however, prevent the Turks from taking Nicosia by assault.

"The year 1571 is memorable for the victory obtained over the Turks in the gulf of Lepanto. In this action Cervantes gave many proofs of his valour, and lost also his hand and part of his left arm, of which he boasts in many parts of his works. After this action the army retired and wintered in Messina. Cervantes of course went there also, but most likely did not serve in the campaign of 1572, on account of his wound, although he often refers to it in the novel of 'The Captive,' as if he had been present. The honour Cervantes thus acquired determined him to continue in the army, notwithstanding the loss of his hand; and he often boasted in his writings, that he had no other profession than that of a soldier. With this view, on his recovery, he joined the Neapolitan army under Philip II. and remained with it till 1575.

"As he was going into Spain in the beginning of this year in a galley, called the Sun, he was taken by the famous corsair, Arnaute Mami, on the 26th of September; and on the division of the captives he fell to the captain's lot. An African captivity, a misfortune in those times so much dreaded by the Spaniards, is certainly capable of some degree of alleviation, if the master happen to be both rich and humane. But even this consolation was denied to Cervantes. Arnaute Mami was an Albanian renegade, so cruel to the Spaniards, and hostile to Christians, that we must pass over the account of his bloody atrocities, nor shock humanity

manity by the recital. It is sufficient to observe, that his tyranny was the most severe and insupportable of any in Argel. This situation would have broken the spirit of any one but Cervantes; on him it produced a different effect, and his mind was always employed in some daring attempt to escape from his oppressor. It is difficult to believe, that a slave should be able to form and encounter such dangerous and extraordinary enterprises under the very eye of a barbarous and sanguinary master: but the event proves, that Cervantes even owed his safety to the boldness with which, though in vain, he constantly endeavoured to escape.

"The Alcaýda Hassan, a Greek renegade, had a garden about three miles from Argel, and near the sea, which was taken care of by a Christian slave, who had made a very deep cave in the most secret part of it. In February 1577, Cervantes escaped from the house of his master, and concealed himself in this cave; and had also the generosity to offer it as an asylum to others. Their number in a few months amounted to fifteen, all men of some consequence. The subsistence and regulation of this subterraneous community depended entirely upon Cervantes, who risked more than the rest in performing this office. The gardener was of course acquainted with the secret; and it was necessary to intrust it to another captive, called El Dorador, depending for his prudence on the hopes they gave him of obtaining his own liberty.

"They resided many months in this voluntary dungeon before an opportunity for flight offered itself. But, on the 1st of September, a native of Majorca, called Viana, being ransomed, they agreed with him to arm a brigantine, and send it to the coast, from whence they might embark for Spain. This man was brave, active, and well acquainted with the coast. He equipped a vessel as soon as he arrived at Majorca, and sailed for Barbary. When night came on he approached the shore near the garden, having previously examined the place. But at the very moment of landing, some Moors happened to pass by, who distinguished, though it was night, both the Christians and the vessel, and began immediately to call so loud for assistance,

that Viana thought it most prudent to put to sea again, in order to prevent a discovery. In the mean time, Cervantes and his companions, ignorant of what had passed, were consoling themselves with the hopes of a happy and almost immediate escape. These hopes, however, were too soon blasted, and in a way impossible to have been prevented, because unforeseen.

"The slave El Dorador, to whom Cervantes had intrusted so much, was a man of a most malignant disposition. He concealed, under the appearance of good faith and candour, the deepest dissimulation and most depraved intentions. Interest was his ruling passion: this made him a renegade when he was young; this again induced him to become a Catholic; and a third time to change to a renegade: for with this pretext he presented himself to the King, discovered to him the secret of the slaves, the situation of the cave, and the skill with which Cervantes managed the whole enterprise. The King instantly ordered a detachment of soldiers, and sending the informer for their guide, he commanded them to secure the gardener and the other slaves, particularly Cervantes, as being most guilty. The soldiers executed their orders, and brought them to the King, who confined them all in his bath, which is a sort of prison, except Cervantes, whom he kept in his palace, in order to ascertain the author of this attempt.

"When an ambitious or avaricious man thinks he has it in his power to gratify his ruling passion, no one is more cunning. It happened that there was at that time in Argel, a person called Father George Olivar, commander of Valencia, who was a particular friend of Cervantes: and the King, in order to get this man into his power, and obtain a considerable sum for his ransom, endeavoured to make it be believed, that he was the principal author of the plot. With this view he examined Cervantes very often, but could never draw from him, either by promises or threats, any other account than that he himself was the sole contriver of the plot, and therefore alone to blame. The King at length gave up the attempt, but appropriated all the captives, not omitting Cervantes, to his own use.

"Interest triumphed over vanity in the

the mind of the King; hence Cervantes and the other slaves escaped with their lives, because the King hoped to obtain a considerable sum by their ransom. He was, however, obliged to return some of them to their old masters, and Cervantes became once more the property of Arnautè Mami. Scarcely had he got back, when he was again impelled, by the misery he suffered, to make fresh attempts. Four times by failure he endangered his life, yet he neither despaired nor desisted; and he at last formed a project, the magnitude and difficulty of which do credit to his courage and perseverance.

"To escape by flight had been hitherto his only object; but the misfortunes which he had experienced from the repeated failure of these attempts, made him determine upon the bold and daring enterprise of raising an insurrection in Argel; and at one blow to destroy the power of these pirates in the Mediterranean. This conspiracy was also unsuccessful from the pusillanimity of a few who were engaged in it. Cervantes, however, conducted it with so much skill, that, when the Argellines discovered it, they began both to respect and fear him. 'The better this lame Spaniard is guarded,' said the King, 'the safer will be my capital, my slaves, and my ships.' Fear took such strong possession of this prince, that at last he did not think himself secure, unless Cervantes was in his own power. But as he had been obliged to restore him after the discovery of the first plot to Arnautè Mami, no other means of obtaining him now remained but by purchase: and he in fact gave five hundred crowns for him. The King immediately sent him to the bath and loaded him with irons, but at the same time treated him with a degree of kindness he had not hitherto experienced. Cervantes himself, in 'The Captive,' after mentioning the tyranny and cruelty with which the slaves were in general treated, adds: 'One Spanish soldier only, called such a one de Saavedra, happened to be in his good graces; and though he did things which will remain in the memory of those people for many years, and all towards obtaining his liberty, yet he never gave him a blow, nor ordered one to be given him, nor even reproached him with so much as a hard

word: and for the least of many things he did, we all feared he would be impaled alive, and he feared it himself more than once.'

"Such is the respect and estimation in which an heroic spirit and a daring soul are held even by barbarians, that Arnautè Mami, nay the King himself, distinguished Cervantes from the other captives by a benignity and mildness so opposite to their natural character.

"These various attempts to obtain his liberty did not prevent his applying to Spain for his ransom. And in order to effect it, his mother, now a widow, went with Donna Andrea de Cervantes, his sister, from Alcala to Madrid in July 1579, and paid into the hands of Father Juan Gil, and Father Antonio de la Vella Trinitarios, three hundred ducats for that purpose. These Fathers arrived in Argel in May 1580, and began to treat for the ransom of the different slaves. It was more difficult to obtain that of Cervantes, because he belonged to the King, who asked a thousand crowns for his freedom. This was the cause of long delay, and he probably never might have been redeemed, had not the King, Hassan, been ordered by the Grand Seigneur to resign his kingdom to Jassa Paza, on whom it had been lately bestowed. Upon this he decreased his demand to five hundred crowns in gold, and threatened, if he did not immediately receive that sum, to take Cervantes with him to Constantinople, and had already put him on board his galley. At length, through compassion and the fear of losing every future opportunity, by borrowing some money, and employing part of that which he had for the ransom of other captives, Father Gil procured Cervantes his liberty in 1580; and in the beginning of the following year he arrived in Spain." *Vol. i. p. xvii.*

"It is an observation of Juan Huartè, in his 'Examen de Ingenios,' that in applying the mind to any science, the inclination for that science should not only be considered, but whether the mind be more inclined to its theory or its practice; because each often requires a different species of abilities. This reflection is fully confirmed in Cervantes. His theoretic knowledge of poetry and the drama, which was excellent, did not enable him to compose in an equal style of perfection.

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In the ingenious conversation between the Canon of Toledo and the Priest, in the first part of Don Quixote, the best laws and regulations are laid down for dramatic and poetic composition. But very far short, indeed, did his own plays fall of this standard.

"Cervantes however was not the only one who neglected the regular drama. Towards the end of the sixteenth century, when Lope de Vega began to be admired by the vulgar, and preferred by the theatres, many found fault with his comedies, as not being written according to the rules of the art. He endeavoured to justify himself by saying, that dramatic compositions should vary according to the age, and the taste of the audience. The contest was carried to such a length, and with so much warmth and vehemence, that the Poetic Academy of Madrid commanded Lope de Vega to write a treatise, in which he should explain the new system he himself followed. In this essay, which was printed in 1602, he boldly confesses the defects of his own comedies, and the distance they are from all rule, fix only excepted; he allows that he exposes himself to the just censure of foreign nations; and even that his aim was to forget the precepts of his art and the example of Plautus and Terence, that he might gain the applause of the many, and thus render his works saleable. So that he not only confirmed the objections which had been made, but acknowledged his intention of always preferring gain to immortality, and profit to honour; like the comic actor Dofenno, whom Horace so pleasantly and so acutely reprehends. Cervantes also, in the same dialogue, says the very same things of Lope de Vega, which he mentioned in his essay. He admits that his desire of accommodating himself to the taste of the performers had prevented him from arriving at that degree of perfection which some of his comedies possessed, yet he also adds to the same of this author by the praises he bestows upon him. He supposes him perfectly acquainted with the rules of his art, and lays the blame upon the bad taste of the actors, not on the ignorance of the poet. So that, when properly received, his arguments are more like an apology for, than a censure upon, Lope de Vega and his imitators.

I

"Cervantes, however, could not himself entirely escape. A comic writer, who was his implacable enemy, attacked him most violently. It is a common trick with the malevolent, to intermix their own cause with that of others of more consequence, in order to deceive and inflame the public. This poet was much offended at the just censures which Cervantes had passed on his works in the Quixote. He knew the estimation he had acquired by that work, and how universally the second part was wished for. To satiate his hatred, therefore, he endeavoured to discredit at one stroke, both the genius and heart of its author: his genius, by continuing the Quixote, and his heart, by asserting, in that continuation, that through envy and malice he abused Lope de Vega. It was with this intention that the second part of the ingenious Knight of La Mancha was produced in Taragona in 1614; written, as the title says, by the Licentiate Alonzo Fernandez de Avellaneda, a native of Tordeillas. But it was in reality the production of the before-mentioned poet; of whom nothing more is known than that he was of Arragon, and that he concealed his name with as much artifice as he endeavoured to mask his intentions.

"He asserts in his preface, that he continued the Quixote with the intention of preventing the pernicious perusal of books of chivalry. And he there abuses Cervantes for his criticisms on Lope de Vega. But the violence of his anger discovers his motives at the very outset. His preface is an infamous and rancorous libel on the writings of Cervantes, which are not the only objects of his abuse; since, in his malice, he descends to personal invective, and calls him old, lame, poor, invidious, and complaining: in short, every one in reading it must be convinced, that he wrote this book for the sole purpose of injuring Cervantes, decrying his abilities, and insinuating either that he could not continue the Quixote, or that there were others equally capable of writing it.

"The audacity of this writer, and his odious and violent style, were alone sufficient to have convinced the public of the merit of our author. But he wisely pursued a better method, by publishing the second part of Don Quixote

Quixote in the year 1615. No sooner was this published, than it became evident that no one was so capable of continuing such a work as the original inventor; and the Castilian Quixote banished the Arragonefe from the republic of letters. The anonymous writer (for Avellaneda concealed his name, that he might insult Cervantes with impunity), who thus sought to tarnish the fame of a deserving and unfortunate man, only added a faded laurel to his triumph. Cervantes, who neither wished to revenge himself, nor tear the mask from his adversary, opposed the personalities which had been published against him with an amiable modesty, and repelled the injuries with temperance. His only weapons were wit and pleasantry, by which he proved the ascendancy of innocence, moderation, and urbanity, over calumny, audacity, and rudeness. And his preface to the second part is a model for mildness and candour in literary warfare." *Vol. i. p. li.*

"One remarkable circumstance relative to our author must not be passed over, though it reflects in its consequences no credit on his countrymen. It is a convincing proof of the merit of the Quixote, and the want of favour towards its author.

"Philip III. being at a window of his palace in Madrid, observed a student reading a book, as he was walking on the banks of the Manzanares, who frequently gave himself a blow on the forehead, which he accompanied with various signs of great pleasure. That monarch, immediately guessing at the cause of his mirth, exclaimed, 'That student is either mad, or reading Don Quixote.' Some person who was about him, from an idea of pleasing the prince, sent immediately to inquire into the truth, and found that the student really was reading it. So public an approbation of the merit of this work, bestowed by the sovereign, and confirmed by the first persons in his court, ought to have reminded them of the poor condition of the author. But, whether they did not mention him, or, if they did, whether it was not remarked, it is certain that no one had the generosity to seize so favourable a moment of soliciting a moderate pension for his support.

"The manner in which Cervantes was slighted, and even despised, by

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some of his countrymen, was felt by him the more, on account of the attention and respect he met with from all foreigners. In such estimation were his works almost all over Europe, that every one who visited Spain was solicitous of seeing and knowing him. On the arrival of a most splendid embassy from France for the purpose of strengthening the mutual ties of friendship between the princes of the house of Bourbon and that of Austria, the conversation of the different nobles of whom it was composed, often turned upon literature, and the state in which it was in Spain. In a visit paid to the ambassador by the Archbishop of Toledo and his court, among whom was the Licentiate Marquez Torres, his master of the pages, the merits of various works of genius were discussed, and, among others, the second part of the Quixote. No sooner was the name of Cervantes mentioned, than they all began to praise him; and to report the estimation in which the French and other nations held the Quixote, the novels, and the Galatea, which many present knew almost by heart. Their commendations were so great, that the Licentiate offered to take them to the house of the author, and introduce them to him. They accepted it with the greatest pleasure, and in the mean time made inquiries about the age, profession, and situation of Cervantes. The Licentiate was obliged, in answer, to tell them, that he was an old wounded soldier, not far removed from a state of poverty. This description so excited the pity of one of the nobles, that he exclaimed, 'Why does not Spain maintain such a man at the public expense?' To which the other prudently and wisely answered, 'If necessity obliges him to write, we ought to pray that he may never possess abundance; because, though he is himself poor, with his works he enriches all the world.'" *Vol. i. p. lvi.*

DEATH OF CERVANTES.

"CERVANTES had now lost all bodily strength; he was, however, still quite collected, and his recollection and sense of the liberality of the Count de Lemos remained unimpaired. The day after he had received extreme unction, he wrote a dedicatory farewell to him; and offered him, as the best

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best proof of his gratitude, 'The Amours of Persilis and Sigismunda.' The composition of this is excellent, and well worthy the attention of both patrons and learned men, as an inducement to liberality in the former, and gratitude in the latter. 'Yesterday,' says Cervantes, 'I received extreme unction, and to-day I write this. My time is short, my pains increase, my hope diminishes; yet I live even longer than I desire, unless it be to kiss your Excellency's feet. Had I the happiness of seeing you once more in Spain, it might perhaps restore me to health. But if it be decreed I am to die, may the will of Heaven be completed! Your Excellency, however, shall know how anxious I am to serve you, not only in this life, but in the next. And, as I prophesy your return, I congratulate on it. I rejoice to see you so universally admired; and I am happy that my hopes are realized by the fame of your goodness.' The expressions in this letter are so much the more honourable to the Count de Lemos, as he who wrote them was in such a miserable situation. Our author's gratitude was sincere and pure, and the dying words of Cervantes deserve as much attention as those of Seneca.

"He retained his calmness and serenity to the last moment of his life. He made his wife Donna Catalina de Salazar, and the Licentiate Francisco Nunez, who resided in the same house, his executors: and left directions for them to bury him in the convent of the Trinity. His life now drew near its close, and the 23d day of April 1616, was the last of his existence, when he finished a course of sixty-eight years, six months, and fourteen days. It is a singular coincidence of circumstances, that the same day should deprive the world of two men of such transcendent abilities as Cervantes and Shakespeare: the latter of whom died in England on the very day that put an end to the life of the former in Spain. And, were this a proper place for the purpose, a parallel might be drawn between them, and extended to a considerable length with great propriety.

"The funeral of Cervantes was as poor and obscure as his person had been. The epitaphs that were com-

posed in his praise deserve not to be recorded. No stone, inscription, or memorial of any sort, remained to point out the place of his interment: and it seems as if an unpropitious fate had persecuted him while living, accompanied him to the grave, and even prevented his friends and protectors from honouring his memory.

"The same fate has attended the portraits which were painted of him by Don Juan de Jauregui and Francisco Pacheco, both of Seville, and reckoned excellent artists. The head, however, which accompanies this edition, was most probably a copy from one or other of them. From all the accounts that are left us, his person, though not large, was well proportioned. He was, however, heavy in his shoulders, and slow of foot. His hair was a bright chestnut, he was eagle-faced, his forehead smooth and open, his eyes lively, his nose hooked, and his mouth small with uneven teeth. He wore his mustachoes very large, and his beard very thick. He had also a hesitation in his speech. The good qualities of his mind were engraven in his countenance, the lively serenity of which announced an affable disposition and an elevated genius." *Vol. I. p. lxx.*

XIX. *A Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt, on the Influence of the Stoppage of Issues in Specie at the Bank of England; on the Prices of Provisions, and other Commodities.* By WALTER BOYD, Esq. M. P. 8vo. pp. 112. 3s. 6d. Wright.

EXTRACTS.

ADVERTISEMENT.

"SINCE the following letter was written, several circumstances have occurred to corroborate the facts and reasonings which it contains.

"By the return to an order of the House of Commons, it appears that the amount of Bank notes in circulation, on the 6th December 1800, was 15,450,970*l.* which exceeds the sum in circulation on the 26th February 1797 (*viz.* 8,640,250*l.*), by nearly four fifths of that circulation. Compared with the average circulation of three years, ending

ing December 1795 (viz. 11,975,573*l.*), the circulation on the 6th December 1800, exceeds that average circulation by nearly three tenths of its amount.

"But, from the mere return of Bank notes (without that of the balances on the books, for which the Bank is likewise liable, and of the specie in its coffers), no accurate estimate can be formed of the positive difference between the present and the former circulation. There may be objections to the communication of any specific account of the specie on hand; but there can be none to such a return as, without specifying any sums, may ascertain the proportion which the specie existing in the Bank on the 6th December 1800, bears to that which existed on the 26th February 1797.

"The exchange with Hamburg, which, when the following letter was written, was 31.10, is now 29.10; by which means the difference which then existed, of nearly 9 per cent. against our currency, is now increased to upwards of 14 per cent. If, therefore, a person residing on the continent remits funds to this country, to be invested in the three per cents, at the price of 62, it is evident that by purchasing the money so remitted, at 14 per cent. discount, the real price of his three percents will be 53 eight twenty-fifths, or nearly 53 one third.

"The price of gold has fortunately not advanced, in the same proportion, within the same period; the price, which on the 11th of November was 4*l.* 5*s.* per ounce, being now 4*l.* 6*s.* which is a further advance of a little more than 1 one sixth per cent. thus making the whole premium upon gold 10*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.* for every 100*l.* or something more than 10 five twelfths per cent.

"These circumstances, however affecting, ought not to be considered as matter of despondency, seeing the mere conviction of their having all arisen from one great error, if strongly felt, will, with the energy and resources

of the country, properly called forth, infallibly lead to the means of retrieving that error.

"In considering the influence of the operations of the Bank of England on the powers of the circulating medium of the country, I have taken no notice of the capital of that establishment, because it forms part of the public debt, which is altogether distinct from that medium." *P. iii.*

To the Right Honourable William Pitt.

"Sir,

"ON many occasions, both before and since the stoppage of issues in specie at the Bank of England, I have, as you know, given it as my opinion, in conversation as well as in writing, that the embarrassed circulation of the metropolis, and the consequent distress all over the country, which began in 1796, and became so alarming in February 1797, proceeded solely from the particular line of conduct which the Bank of England had thought proper to pursue, from the month of December 1795 to the end of February 1797. To that conduct I have uniformly attributed the diminution of the means of circulation* which took place within that period; a diminution so disastrous in its consequences as to depreciate, in an alarming degree, the funded property of the country; to cramp the operations of commerce; to check the efforts of industry; and, finally, to bring on that last stage of discredit, which reduced the Bank itself to the unheard-of predicament of not being able to answer the demands of the public for specie in exchange for its notes.

"This opinion was not the result of any partiality of mine for a favourite doctrine. It was confirmed by the general conviction which arose from the labours of the Committees of both Houses of Parliament.

"The same principles which enabled me to trace to their source the calamities produced by a starved circulation,

* "By the words 'means of circulation,' 'circulating medium,' and 'currency,' which are used almost as synonymous terms in this letter, I understand always ready money, whether consisting of Bank notes or specie, in contradistinction to bills of exchange, navy bills, exchequer bills, or any other negotiable paper, which form no part of the circulating medium, as I have always understood that term. The latter is the circulator; the former are merely objects of circulation."

not only after those calamities had become notorious, but during their progress, and long before the measure of them was full, lead me now to suspect that the increase in the prices of almost all articles of necessity, convenience, and luxury, and indeed of almost every species of exchangeable value, which has been gradually taking place during the last two years, and which has recently arrived at so great a height, proceeds chiefly from the addition to the circulating medium, which I conceive to have been made by the issue of Bank notes, uncontrolled by the obligation of paying them in specie on demand.

"Before the memorable 26th of February 1797, it had been the pride and boast of this country, for more than a century, that the Bank of England, which had contributed so essentially to the extension of our trade, and to the consolidation of the public credit, had never, in any instance, departed from the most scrupulous observance of the obligation (which indeed formed the fundamental condition of its institution) of paying every demand upon it in specie the moment such demand was made. While this condition, at once the pledge of its good faith towards a confiding public, and the proof of its private prosperity as a company, remained inviolate, there was little danger of an excessive circulation of Bank notes; but, from the moment this condition was dispensed with, the danger of excessive issues became apparent. Indeed it is not to be supposed that a corporation, whose profits chiefly arise from the circulation of its notes, and which is exclusively directed by persons participating in those profits, has been, or could possibly be, proof against the temptation which the license they have enjoyed since February 1797 has afforded. That they have not resisted this temptation, seems but too probable, from the general advance in prices which has gradually taken place since that period." P. 1.

"But it may be said, that the great and general rise of prices, which I have been mentioning as a proof of the existence of a great increase of Bank notes, remains itself to be proved. To this I reply, that when a fact is proved by the concurring testimony of a whole community, and when every man must

feel the conviction of its existence, it would be a mere waste of time to descend to particulars, in order to prove that fact. Every man feels, in his abridged comforts, or in his increased expenses, the existence of this melancholy truth; but every man does not know that what, in vulgar language, bears the name of 'increase of price,' might, with perhaps more propriety, be called 'depreciation of paper.' Of this there is, in the present price of gold bullion, a very strong proof, and one which, from its nature, comes more home to the ordinary feelings and understandings of men than any other proof whatever. 'Portugal gold' 'in coin' has, for these last six months, been selling in the London market at 4*l.* 5*s.* per ounce. It is of the same quality with our standard gold, of which the Mint price is 3*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.* per ounce; and a pound of the one, like a pound of the other, when coined at the Mint, will produce forty-four guineas and a half, and no more. Therefore, if a pound of Portugal gold be purchased at 4*l.* 5*s.* per ounce, it will cost

-	-	-	£	5	1	0	0
And only produce, in coin,							
forty-four guineas and a							
half, of which the current							
value is	-	-	-	4	6	14	6

And consequently will occasion a loss of - - - £. 4 3 6

"This is a discount which the common currency of the country suffers, when exchanged for bullion (in all respects equal to our standard gold) of no less than 8*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.* for every 100*l.* or a little more than 8½ per cent.

"If the idea of a discount upon our currency be unpleasant, we may say that gold bears a premium in the market; but, in that case, this premium must be called 9*l.* 3*s.* for every 100*l.* or something more than 9½ per cent.; because, if 46*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* in gold cost 51*l.* in Bank notes, 100*l.* in gold will cost 109*l.* 3*s.* in Bank notes.

"I believe there is no example of guineas having been exchanged otherwise than at par. The few that are employed for the common purposes of occasional domestic circulation, pass for no more than their corresponding current value in paper; and these few have, I believe, hitherto been always readily found, when wanted; but it must

must be evident, notwithstanding, that the intrinsic value of the coin of the country, when of the proper weight, or (which comes to the same) of the materials of which that coin is composed, is, according to this calculation, 9½ per cent. more than that of the general currency of the country.

"While such a difference exists between gold, in its current standard value, as coin, and its intrinsic value as a commodity; or, in other words, while the real value of gold so far exceeds that of our currency, however composed, much of the coin will necessarily be melted, for the purpose of profiting by that difference; the common currency being, in all respects, equally effectual for discharging debts as our gold coin, with all the intrinsic superiority it possesses over that currency.

"The same circumstances which raise the value of gold in the home market, necessarily tend to depreciate our currency when compared with the currency of other countries; and accordingly we find, that the exchange with Hamburgh, which may be considered as the proper criterion (while our intercourse with France, Holland, Spain, and several other parts of Europe is suspended), of which, according to the evidence I delivered before a Committee of the Lords in 1797, the par is 34:8½. is now at 31:10s. which establishes a difference of nearly 9 per cent. against this country." P. 24.

"A great rise has taken place in the price of every species of exchangeable value, during the short period of two years. The public mind is on the rack to discover the cause of this rise, of which the most alarming effects are manifested in the great article of bread. One says, that there is a *real scarcity of grain*, owing to an uncommonly bad season last year, and a scanty crop this year. How this knowledge was acquired, I am utterly ignorant; but as it comes from a noble Duke, high in the administration of the internal affairs of this country, it is to be presumed that it was not promulgated on slight or doubtful grounds. This, however, I must be permitted to say, that if there did exist sufficient reason to believe the scarcity to be *real*, the influence of that cause cannot have lost

any of its force by the extraordinary publicity given to it.

"Another says, *There is no scarcity*; but a set of forestallers and regraters have monopolized the grain of the country, and sell it out at such prices as they think proper to fix, from time to time. He invokes the severity of the laws against those offenders, with all the illiberal virulence of the dark age which called such imaginary offenders into existence. He deploras the repeal of the good old code which delivered over such offenders to the wholesome chastisement of penal statutes, and seeks, in the common law of the land, for the means of restoring the spirit of those statutes which so long disgraced the jurisprudence of England. The age we live in is fortunately too enlightened for such exploded notions to gain much ground; but as they have the passions and prejudices of the lower orders of the community strongly on their side, they must, particularly when sanctioned by station and fortune, tend greatly to increase the evil of scarcity and of dearth, as well as to excite a spirit of sedition of the most dangerous tendency in the people. While I thus avow myself the irreconcilable enemy of all such public economy as professes to produce *plenty*, by means which lead directly to *want*, I am not the less persuaded that excessive circulation of paper must give rise to much speculation in grain as well as in every other article: but to attempt to check *speculation* by punishing *speculators*, is, of all the crude and impracticable fancies that ever were formed, the most hopeless and unprofitable. To draw the line between fair and honourable mercantile pursuits, and that illiberal and extorsive conduct which is too often practised under their name, requires a hand of such infinite delicacy, a touch of such exquisite nicety, as cannot fairly be expected in the ordinary practice of any court of law. In the same proscription which might be honestly intended for the ungenerous and unworthy advantages which individuals may, and do take, of the general distress, in all probability would be involved the fair, honourable, praiseworthy pursuits of those who, while they are promoting their own interest, actually administer to all the essential comforts

comforts of the community. To punish *speculators* then, I consider altogether a vain and fruitless attempt. It must tend to check the efforts of enterprise and industry, which is certainly not the intention even of those who join most loudly in the cry, against forestallers and regraters: their object is to punish *improper speculation*; but they do not consider, that any *law* which human wisdom can devise to repress the one, may, nay must, be in a great degree destructive of the other. But although I am of opinion that *laws* neither can, nor ought to attempt to regulate speculation, I know and believe that it is perfectly within the province of the legislature to withhold all *improper* support to speculation of any kind; and therefore that it is the duty of Parliament no longer to authorize even the possibility of an extension of the means of circulation beyond those limits which the experience of a century (in perfect unison with the purest theory, as well as with every principle of good faith and common sense) had sanctioned with its approbation. The paper circulation of the country never was, nor could be, dangerous from the speculations it gave rise to, so long as the great primary wheel which set it in motion turned upon an axis of gold and silver, because the obligation to maintain that axis in a proper state of strength, formed a salutary and effectual check upon any excess in the circulation it had to support. To interfere in the exercise of the rights which the Bank of England, or the London bankers, or the country banks, or the farmers, or the corn-dealers, or any other class of traders justly possess over their own credit and industry, would

be impolitic, unjust, and unavailing; but to restore the currency of the country to its pristine purity, to confine it within those limits which good faith and good sense equally point out for it, is not only proper and practicable, but indispensably necessary, in order to prevent the numberless calamities which the uncontrolled circulation of paper not convertible into specie must infallibly produce. To bring back the circulation of Bank notes to the original condition of their circulation, is merely to correct an abuse which never ought to have existed. This would not be a novelty. The present system is a novelty, and one of the most dangerous tendency *." P. 52.

XX. *Brief Observations* on a late Letter addressed to the Right Hon. W. Pitt, by W. Boyd, Esq. &c. on the Stoppage of Issues in Specie by the Bank of England, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 35. 1s. Debrett.

EXTRACTS.

"MR. Boyd lays it down as a principle, that the high price of grain, and the advance in other necessary articles of life, is to be attributed to the increase of the paper-currency, from the additional quantity of notes thrown into circulation since the year 1797. To the same cause he refers the loss in exchange with the continent, and the advanced price of gold.

"He states, that, in the year 1795, the paper-circulation of the Bank was 14,975,573*l*.; and that the Bank re-

* "If I believed (as some people do) that the resumption of payments in specie at the Bank of England would embarrass Administration, I should not contend for that resumption. To recommend *any measure* which might have the effect of weakening the efforts of this country in the struggle it has to maintain, as long as such struggle is judged necessary (whatever opinion I may individually entertain of the means of sustaining, or of the duration of, that struggle), would be altogether inconsistent with the ideas of public spirit which I have ever held. It is because I feel the most complete conviction that the real resources of this country are now, and always have been, too solid and extensive to require the aid of forced paper-money, that dangerous quack-medicine, which, far from restoring vigour, gives only temporary artificial health, while it secretly undermines the vital powers of the country that has recourse to it.—It is because I am intimately convinced that the resumption of payments in specie at the Bank, *by the manner of carrying it into effect*, may be rendered perfectly consistent with the truest interests of Government, of the Bank itself, and of the public at large, that I thus press the necessity of that resumption."

duced

duced it, in the year 1797, to 8,640,250*l*. This diminished circulation being severely felt by many mercantile houses in the city, a memorial was presented to the minister, in which Mr. Boyd took an active part, remonstrating against the conduct of the Bank, and suggesting a plan for the support of public credit, independent of it. The proposition, however, was not adopted; but the Bank, either taking alarm, or finding that the reasons for continuing the diminution no longer subsisted, gradually extended its credit, so that in the year 1800 it amounted, as appears from the account delivered to Parliament, to 15,450,970*l*. the difference in the course of five years being 3,475,397*l*.; and this sum, according to Mr. Boyd, is the monster which has devoured our harvests: it is to this increased circulation he attributes the exorbitant rise of provisions, as well as every other concomitant mischief. Few people, indeed, have formed an adequate idea of the extent of the evil: for it may be proved, by a very simple calculation, that the increased price of bread alone, amounts, in the consumption of fifty-two weeks, to upwards of twenty millions above the ordinary expenditure of common years.

"If we suppose each individual, according to the proclamation, to consume one quarter loaf in a week; that the advance in the price of such loaf is one shilling above its general rate in years of plenty; and that the population of England amounts to eight millions; that number, at one shilling per week, or 2*l*. 12*s*. per annum, will produce the enormous sum of twenty millions eight hundred thousand pounds.

"When Mr. Boyd had made this strong assertion respecting the augmented circulation, he ought to have proved the truth of it. It became him to ascertain that the circulation is actually overcharged; that is to say, that there have been any persons in possession of Bank notes, without being able to convert them into property, either of an active or passive nature. This is the real test of the truth of his opinion; and as no complaint of that nature has hitherto been made, it may be reasonably presumed that no greater quantity of notes have been issued than the circulation absolutely demands. Nor can Mr. Boyd, I believe, point out a

single instance in which any one has sustained an injury by such issues."—
P. 11.

"The real scarcity of provisions, which is chimerically treated by Mr. Boyd, has also, by the very advanced prices arising from that circumstance, tended to increase the circulation. Now, when a fair statement is made of all these occurrences, and a deduction added of the proportion of specie received into the Bank, out of the increased issue of 3,475,397*l*. the balance will appear to be very small indeed; and the phantom conjured up by Mr. Boyd's financial imagination, dissolves in air.

"But while Mr. Boyd dwells on fancied evils, or suffers his imagination to exaggerate beyond all probability some of those which really exist, he passes over the dearth of grain with a degree of calmness that might not be altogether expected from a person, who seems to be prepared to unfold the distresses of his country: for he cannot be ignorant that the value of the imports of various kinds, during the last twelve months, has amounted to seven or eight millions sterling; and as grain in every part of the world is a ready-money article, it required the most prompt mode of payment. Besides, as grain has been collected in every quarter where it could be obtained, and as the farmer must be paid in cash, an increased demand for specie or bullion was the natural consequence. The subsidy to the Emperor, amounting to several millions, must be also thrown into the scale, and neither of the circumstances have been noticed by Mr. Boyd; so that the present high price of gold appears not as an irregular, but as a natural and obvious consequence. Nor shall I be easily persuaded that these are not more reasonable and satisfactory causes for the increased circulation of notes, than the stoppage of payment in cash at the Bank." P. 18.

"I shall not here attempt to analyze Mr. Boyd's motives to this publication; but whatever they may be, was it possible for him, in the vainest moment of his financial calculations, to imagine that he could change a system which has stood the test of three years, to the entire satisfaction of the nation at large, and with the encouraging support of seventy great banking-houses, and all the

the leading commercial companies in the kingdom? I can also ask, with some degree of confidence, if any complaint has been made to Parliament, to the minister, or the public, of any injury sustained by the adoption of a measure, which is reprobated, condemned, and criminated, through an hundred and eleven pages of his pamphlet. If there is any fallacy in the system, or if it possesses a chronical danger, is it to be supposed that so many, and such large bodies of individuals, apprenticed, as it were, to the vigilance and attention necessary for their own interests, would not have discovered and declared it? Are not the monied and mercantile men satisfied both with the conduct of the Bank and the minister respecting the measure in question? During the course of its operation, has not the funded property risen upwards of ten per cent.? Have not the taxes during the same period, and which are the heaviest ever levied in this country, been submissively borne, and, in general, loyally paid? Have not our imports and exports increased beyond all example and expectation? And will any one, then, venture to tell me, or at least expect me to believe his assertion, that the increase of circulation, and the sterling solidity given to paper-issues from the Bank, have been attended with injurious consequences to public credit, and, if not corrected, must prove fatal to the public prosperity?" P. 29.

XXI. *The History, civil and commercial, of the British Colonies in the West Indies.* By BRYAN EDWARDS, Esq. F. R. S. S. A. Vol. III. 4to. pp. 443. 1l. 5s. Stockdale.

LIST OF PLATES,

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Map of Tobago.

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* * See a detail of the Contents of the first twelve Chapters in *M. Epitome*, vol. i. p. 241.

Chap. XIII. A Tour through the several Islands of Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Antigua, Tobago, and Grenada, in the Years 1791 and 1792, by Sir William Young, Bart. M. P. F. R. S. &c. &c.—Observations on the Disposition, Character, Manners, and Habits of Life, of the Maroon Negroes of the Island of Jamaica; and a Detail of the Origin, Progress, and Termination of the late War between those People and the white Inhabitants (first published in 1796).

HISTORY OF THE WAR IN THE WEST INDIES.

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loupe—Their Successes; followed by the Reduction of the whole Island—Inhuman Barbarity of Victor Hugues to the Royalists—Sir C. Grey and Sir J. Jervis succeeded by Sir J. Vaughan and Admiral Caldwell.—IV. Savage Indignities of Victor Hugues to the Remains of General Dundas—His unprecedented Cruelty to his British Prisoners—Meditates Hostilities against the other Islands.

EXTRACTS.

ANCIENT AND PRESENT STATE OF ST. DOMINGO—PILLAGED BY DRAKE—STATE OF AGRICULTURE.

“THE Spanish colony in Hispaniola (the name St. Domingo being properly applicable to the chief city only) was the earliest establishment made by the nations of Europe in the New World; and unhappily, it is too notorious to be denied, that it was an establishment founded in rapacity and cemented with human blood! The sole object of the first Spanish adventurers was to ransack the bowels of the earth for silver and gold; in which frantic pursuit they murdered at least a million of the peaceful and inoffensive natives! As the mines became exhausted, a few of the more industrious of the Spaniards entered on the cultivation of cacao, ginger, and sugar; but the poverty of the greater part of the inhabitants, and the discovery of new mines in Mexico, occasioned a prodigious emigration; the experience of past disappointments not proving sufficiently powerful to cure the rage for acquiring wealth by a shorter course than that of patient industry. In less than a century, therefore, Hispaniola was nearly deserted, and nothing preserved it as a colony, but the establishment of archiepiscopal government in its chief city, St. Domingo; and its being for many years the seat of civil and criminal jurisdiction, in cases of appeal, from all the territories of Spain in this part of the world.” P. 208.

“In 1586 it was attacked by Sir Francis Drake; a narrative of whose expedition, by an eye-witness, is preserved in Hakluyt's Collection; from which it appears, that it was, even then, a city of great extent and mag-

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nificence; and it is shocking to relate, that, after a month's possession, Drake thought himself authorized, by the laws of war, to destroy it by fire. ‘We spent the early part of the mornings,’ says the historian of the voyage, ‘in firing the outmost houses; but they being built very magnificently of stone, with high loftes, gave us no small travail to ruin them. And albeit, for divers dayes together, we ordeined ech morning by daybreak, until the heat began at nine of the clocke, that two hundred mariners did nought els but labour to fire and burn the said houses, whilst the soldiers in a like proportion, stood forth for their guard; yet did we not, or could not, in this time, consume so much as one third part of the towne; and so in the end, wearied with firing, we were contented to accept of five and twenty thousand ducats, of five shillings and sixpence the peece, for the ranfome of the rest of the towne.’

“Of the present condition of this ancient city, the number of its inhabitants, and the commerce which they support, I can obtain no account on which I can depend. That it hath been long in its decline, I have no doubt; but that it is wholly depopulated and in ruins, as Raynal asserts, I do not believe. The cathedral and other public buildings are still in being, and were lately the residence of a considerable body of clergy and lawyers. The city continued also, while under the Spanish government, the diocese of an archbishop, to whom, it is said, the bishops of St. Jago in Cuba, Venezuela in New Spain, and St. John's in Porto Rico, were suffragans. These circumstances have hitherto saved St. Domingo from entire decay, and may possibly continue to save it. With this very defective information the reader must be content. As little seems to be known concerning the state of agriculture in the Spanish possessions in this island, as of their capital and commerce. A few planters are said to cultivate cacao, tobacco, and sugar, for their own expenditure; and perhaps some small quantities of each are still exported for consumption in Spain. The chief article of exportation, however, continues to be, what it always has been since the mines were abandoned,

* R

doned, the hides of horned cattle; which have multiplied to such a degree, that the proprietors are said to reckon them by thousands; and vast numbers (as I believe I have elsewhere observed) are annually slaughtered solely for the skins*.

"It seems therefore extremely probable, that the cultivation of the earth is almost entirely neglected throughout the whole of the Spanish dominion in this island; and that some of the finest tracts of land in the world, once the paradise of a simple and innocent people, are now abandoned to the beasts of the field, and the vultures which hover round them†.

"Of this description, probably, is the country already mentioned, called Llos Llanos, which stretches eastward from the capital upwards of fourscore British miles in length, by twenty or twenty-five in width; and which, abounding in rivers throughout, may be supposed adapted for the growth of every tropical production. It seems capable also of being artificially flooded in dry weather.

"Next to Llos Llanos in magnitude, but superior, it is believed, in native fertility, is the noble valley to the north, called Vega Real; through the middle of which flows the river Yuna, for the space of fifty miles, and disembogues in Samana bay to the east. Perhaps it were no exaggeration to say, that this and the former districts are alone capable of producing more sugar, and other valuable commodities, than all the British West Indies put together.

"These plains, however, though in contiguity the largest, are not the only parts of the country on which nature has bestowed extraordinary fertility. Glades abundantly rich, easy of access, and obvious to cultivation, are every where found, even in the bosom of the mountains; while the mountains

themselves contribute to fertilize the vallies which they encircle." P. 213.

EXTRACTS FROM SIR WILLIAM YOUNG'S TOUR.

"BARBADOES, 1791.—Tuesday, December 6. Early in the morning Barbadoes appeared in sight, bearing on the starboard bow W.N.W. At two o'clock P.M. the passengers landed in the six-oared pinnace. We went to a noted tavern, formerly Rachel's, now kept by Nancy Clark, a mulatto woman, where I first tasted avocado-pear, a mawkish fruit‡. Walking about the streets of Bridge Town, my impressions gave me far from a disagreeable sensation as to the negroes. The town is extensive, and seems crowded with people, mostly negroes; but the negroes, with few exceptions, seemed dressed in a style much above even our common artisans, the women especially; and there was such a swagger of importance in the gait of those (and many there were) who had gold ear-rings and necklaces, that I told my friend Mr. O. on his pressing me for my opinion of what struck me on first landing in the West Indies, *That the negro women seemed to be the proudest mortals I had ever seen.* A Guinea ship was then in the harbour, and had lain there some time; but none of the disgusting sights of ulcerated and deserted seamen appeared in the streets. Nor did I see any thing relative to the conduct of the slaves that implied the situation of abject acquiescence, and dread of cruel superiority, attributed to them in Great Britain. Many pressed their services on our first landing; and some first begged, and then joked with us, in the style of a *Darus* of Terence, with great freedom of speech, and some humour. I had a higher opinion of their minds, and a better opinion of

* "It is said that a company was formed at Barcelona in 1757, with exclusive privileges, for the re-establishment of agriculture and commerce in the Spanish part of St. Domingo: I know not with what success."

† "The *Gallinazo*, or American vulture, a very ravenous and filthy bird that feeds on carrion. These birds abound in St. Domingo, and devour the carcasses of the cattle as soon as the skins are stripped off by the hunters."

‡ "There is no disputing about tastes. In Jamaica this fruit is very highly esteemed by all classes of people. It is usually eaten with pepper and salt, and has something of the flavour of the Jerusalem artichoke, but it is richer and more delicate. It is sometimes called *vegetable marrow*, and it is remarkable that animals both granivorous and carnivorous, eat it with relish."

their

their masters and government, than before I set my foot on shore.—Such are my first impressions, written this evening on returning on board; furthermore, the squares or broader streets are crowded with negroes; their wrangles and conversation forcibly struck me, as analogous to what might have been looked for from the slaves in the Forum at Rome. Said a negro boy about twelve years of age to a young mulatto; ‘*You damn my soul? I wish you were older and bigger, I would make you change some blows with me.*’—‘*Upon my honour!*’ said an old negro. ‘*I’ll bet you a joe*’ (johannes), answered another, who had nothing but canvas trousers on. I gave him no credit for possessing a six-and-thirty shilling piece, but I gave him full credit for a language which characterizes a presumption of self-importance.—Perhaps, however, liberty of speech is more freely allowed, where license can most promptly be suppressed. The *liberty* of the Roman emperors, as we find in Tacitus, and the domestic slaves of the Roman people, as we deduce from scenes of Plautus and Terence, sometimes talked a language, and took liberties, with their lords and masters, which in free servants and citizens would not have been allowed. Liberty of the press is a proof of political freedom, but liberty of tongue is rather a proof of individual slavery. The feast of the *Saturnalia* allowed to slaves freedom of speech for the day, without control. In my estimate of human nature, I should say that such freedom could not be used but moderately indeed; for the slave knew, that if he abused *his* power on the Thursday, the master might abuse *his* power on the Friday. His best security was on those days, when every word might be forbidden, and therefore every word might be forgotten or forgiven. In qualification of all inference from my first view of negroes I should observe, that they were *town* negroes, many of them probably *free* negroes, and many, or most of them, if not all, *domestic* or *house* negroes. One small country cart, drawn by twelve oxen, and with three carter, gave me no favourable idea of the owner’s feeding, of either beasts or men. But accounts of distress, and

objects of distress in the streets, are exaggerations. I saw as little of either, as in any market-town in England.

“At six in the evening we returned on board; Captain and Mrs. W. of the 60th regiment, and their little girl, joining us on the passage to St. Vincent’s, for which island we immediately bore away.

“Barbadoes is an island rising with gentle ascent to the interior parts, called the Highlands of Scotland. As we sailed along the coast from east to west, it appeared wonderfully inhabited; dotted with houses as thick as on the declivities in the neighbourhood of London or Bristol, but with no woods, and with very few trees, even on the summits of the hills; two or three straggling cocoas near each dwelling-house were all the trees to be seen.

“St. Vincent, 1791.—Wednesday, December 7, at daybreak, St. Vincent’s in sight. At three P.M. the ship came to an anchor in Nanton’s Harbour, off Calliaqua. Mr. H. came immediately on board, and in an half hour we went on shore in the pinnace; horses were ready to carry us up to the villa, or mansion-house of my estate, distant about half a mile: a number of my negroes met me on the road, and stopped my horse, and I had to shake hands with every individual of them. Their joy was expressed in the most lively manner, and there was an ease and familiarity in their address, which implied no habits of apprehension or restraint: the circumstance does the highest honour to my brother-in-law, Mr. H. who has the management of them. On arriving at my house, I had a succession of visitors. The old negro nurse brought the grass gang, of twenty or thirty children, from five to ten years old, looking as well and lively as possible. The old people came one by one to have some chat with *Massa* (Master), and among the rest ‘*Granny*’ ‘*Sarah*,’ who is a curiosity. She was born in Africa, and had a child before she was carried from thence to Antigua. Whilst in Antigua she remembers perfectly well the rejoicing on the *Bacra*’s (white men’s) being let out of gaol, who had killed Governor Park. Now this happened on the death of Queen Anne, in 1713-4; which gives,

* “Grandmother.”

R 2

to

to Christmas 1797-2, - Years 78
Add two years in Antigua, for
passage, &c. - - - - - 2

Suppose her to have had a child
at fourteen, and to have been fold
the year after - - - - - 15

The least probable age of Gran-
ny Sarah is - - - - - 95
and she is the heartiest old woman I
ever saw. She danced at a negro ball

last Christmas; and I am to be her
partner, and dance with her next
Christmas.—She has a garden, or pro-
vision-ground, to herself, in which,
with a great-grandchild, about six
years old, she works some hours every
day, and is thereby rich. She hath
been exempted from all labour, except
on her own account, for many years.
P. 267.

(To be concluded in our next.)

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